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WHAT IS AHEAD OF OLDER HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS

THE Selective Service Law of 1948 makes young men nineteen to twenty-five years of age liable for compulsory military service. Though it is estimated that, at present, only about one in thirty-eight will be selected for service and that the current policy is to consider first the older men in this age group, the upper-class boys in high schools, nevertheless, do not feel too certain about what is ahead of them, educationally or vocationally, in the next several years.

Uncertainty about the immediate future tends to cool what little motivation some boys have toward their studies even when they face a relatively definite program for the future. At the moment, therefore, the problem of motivation for some pupils is even more urgent than it has been in the recent past. What can the schools do to aid this group of pupils?

The psychological stimulation that is needed by the pupils under consideration stems from three sources: educational orientation, vocational objectives, and psycho-physical activities. Counselors, teachers, and administrative officers who do something about these matters now will save themselves trouble with certain kinds of problem pupils later on.

Educational orientation Educational orientation is needed by all pupils.

It is especially needed by students unsure of their personal, social, or vocational futures. Educational orientation enables the individual to understand the purposes of education. It gives meaning to educational institutions. It makes clear to the individual the social as well as the personal benefits which the schools strive to obtain for him. It provides an understanding of the substance of education that transcends the organization and the machinery of schools. It

has everything to do with genuine educational objectives and relatively little to do with course titles, time spent, and course credits. The latter are necessary adjuncts of education for quick evaluation of an individual but not for long-term appraisal. Educational guidance justifies book learning but concerns all avenues to physical, mental, social, and moral growth of the individual for the sake of the common good and for the purpose of meeting individual needs. It enables the pupil to appreciate the educational objectives of the school; yet it makes clear that such objectives go beyond the school and are, in reality, the individual's life-objectives, which he can attain only by his own endeavors. It envisages the school as one of several opportunities available to help the individual reach his ultimate goals, but it shows that the school does not account for his success or failure. He is the responsible agent. Educational guidance indicates to the pupil that learning is a process controlled by the individual and that it is a lifelong process. Educational guidance makes clear that the school is not the only environment in which the individual can learn. Going from the school into military service or vocational life is, or should be, merely the continuing of learning or education in another environment.

How can educational orientation be accomplished? In part, by providing a broad general education through sound introduction to the natural and the social sciences and to the human-

ities. In part, by indicating the avenues available to the individual for continuing his education in the military services or after entrance into a vocation. During World War II the military services developed programs for both formal and informal kinds of instruction, for both general and vocational training. *Education Summary* of October 5, 1948, states:

The world's largest secondary school is, without a doubt, the United States Armed Forces Institute if recent estimates approach accuracy. With 220,000 servicemen participating in one or more of its phases, the USAFI reports that it is preparing approximately 5,000 men per month to qualify for high-school diplomas or equivalency certificates.

Vocational objectives While not true of all pupils, it can be shown that many are stimulated to study because they have definite vocational plans, which have been decided upon after careful consideration of their own qualifications in relation to vocational specifications. The task of the school is to indicate to such pupils (1) the value and necessity for general education before starting with specialized training and (2) the fact that, for the beginner in any vocation, worth-while vocational training is not highly specialized. The more specific aspects of training can be acquired on the job or, in the case of boys who are conscripted, by application for such training or experience during their military service. The beginner is frequently impatient because the particular kind of training and ex-

perience which he receives on the job is not, to his way of thinking, sufficiently pointed to his occupational goal. If it is not too long continued, almost any experience has some vocational value on a long-term basis.

Psycho-physical development Psycho-physical development can also be made a motivating force to induce pupils to continue schooling. Emphasis on athletics appeals only to some pupils, and, by their very nature, competitive sports engage relatively small percentages of school enrolments. Yet practically all youth are interested in health and physical development.

Early in World War II the nation experienced, as it does periodically, alarm over the unsatisfactory health and physical status of American youth. The schools of the nation responded by increasing the number of periods of physical training for every pupil. Typically, those periods were devoted to developing muscles and physical skills. Though exercise is advocated as a health measure, it is equally true that proper diet, relaxation, sanitation, and personal hygiene are essential to healthful living. These contributions to health, however, are too seldom stressed by schools as equal in importance to exercise from sports. The sports program does not motivate all pupils to follow a genuine health regimen in their daily living. There should not be a great difference between the health program carried on by a normal in-

dividual attending school or college and those aspects of healthful living advocated by the armed forces or carried out by the individual who wishes to succeed in vocational life.

Even the aspect of physical training intended to motivate muscular development through sports might well be revamped to fit the long-term interests of more pupils. This concept is advocated by Alan H. Weiss, director of physical education at the Blackshear (Georgia) High School, in an article entitled "New Outlook in Physical Education" appearing in the September, 1948, issue of *Scholastic Coach*:

Being an academic subject, physical education must adhere to the seven cardinal principles of education, two of which are: "We must teach students to do well those things which they must do after school," and "The worthy use of leisure time."

With these premises in mind, let us analyze the average physical-education program. The typical program consists of touch football, volleyball, basketball, softball, track, gym games, self-testing activities, gymnastics, and, in rare instances, swimming, dancing, and golf.

In many schools, very little teaching is done by the instructor, so that most of the learning remains a matter of trial and error.

This may be attributed to various causes, such as huge classes, instructors who are preoccupied with coaching varsity teams, and lack of student interest.

Why this disinterest by the students? Because most of the activities offered are part and parcel of the varsity program and if the student had sufficient interest in them to begin with, he would have gone out for the varsity.

Another important factor contributing to student ennui is lack of motivation.

As you can see, there is quite a discrepancy in what should be offered and what actually is offered. While football, basketball, baseball, and track are splendid sports, they are not activities which are used much, if at all, in post-school life. Because of the equipment involved, the large number of players required, and the rigorous nature of the activity, they do not lend themselves as leisure-time activities.

What should we do about it? First of all, let us de-emphasize the following physical-education activities: touch football, baseball, basketball, and track, inasmuch as they do not adhere to our cardinal principles.

The average student does not have to play these games for six weeks at a time. The superior athletes can get their fill through the varsity program.

In place of these sports, let us incorporate the following: tennis, bowling, golf, handball, horseshoes, softball, social dancing, table tennis, swimming, and badminton. To this, add the regular physical-education activities—tumbling, gymnastics, volleyball, gym games, and stunts—and you have a core around which to build a new outlook in physical education.

A book on the merits of high school It is exceedingly unfortunate that world affairs have forced upon us selective service of youth for the armed forces. In light of this situation, however, it would be even more unfortunate if schools did not do everything possible to understand the problems of school youth who are faced with the possibility of induction into the armed forces. We would not be fulfilling our responsibilities toward youth should the schools fail to provide them with full understanding of the reasons for the Selective Service Law and to help motivate them to

continue developing their physical, mental, and moral qualities in spite of the uncertainties which they may feel about their immediate future programs.

What Good Is High School? by E. F. Lindquist, Lauren A. Van Dyke, and John R. Yale (a 1948 publication issued at \$0.75 a copy by Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois), is a timely and valuable contribution for high-school pupils. The specific topics, dealt with in a fashion easily understood by pupils, indicate the scope of this pamphlet:

Why Should You Go to High School?
Why High School Is as It Is
What's Wrong with High School?
What's Right with High School?
The "Fundamentals" and Their Value
The New Interest in Personal Relations
How You Can Help Make High School Better

This is the kind of material which high-school pupils should find very worth while.

UPWARD EXTENSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

THOUGH not specifically designated to meet the needs of the special group of students considered in the previous item, Beatrice (Nebraska) High School is offering a program which, in part at least, will serve their needs while also providing additional educational opportunity for all interested high-school graduates in that city. The *Nebraska Education News* of

September 24, 1948, makes the following statement:

Beatrice High School will be the testing ground of a new brand of getting a college education. Superintendent Barton Kline has announced that Nebraska Freshman courses in arts and science will be offered at the Beatrice High School by Nebraska instructors. Students who have the available time can take the full twelve hours required by the University.

Registration for the college term began September 16, and classes started September 20. The courses are given after the regular high-school day sessions, commencing at 4 P.M. and continuing on into the evening. The tentative hours are from 4 P.M. to 6 P.M. and from 7 P.M. until 10 P.M.

The arrangements were made with the Extension Division of the University of Nebraska. It provides that Beatrice High School furnish the classrooms and facilities with the University providing the instructors and course supervision.

It will be low-cost education for these students. There is a \$1 registration fee. The charge for courses will be \$6 per credit hour per semester. The first semester will include Freshman English, social science, political science, and fundamentals of speech. Each of these courses awards three hours of University credit.

The classes are not restricted to Beatrice graduates. Anyone who is a graduate of an accredited high school will be accepted.

Prior to this, any off-campus work has been done on an odd-credit basis. Beatrice is the first to be offered a Freshman year. A similar program was used in Beatrice last year providing classes for teachers.

Though the program at Beatrice is a move in the right direction, it represents a facet of the more significant trend toward the complete reorganization of the upper years of the present high school and the first two years

of the traditional college. It seems apparent that sooner or later the college which brings together Grades XI through XIV will be widespread in this country. This type of institution is no longer in an experimental stage; several colleges, among them the College of the University of Chicago, have demonstrated its effectiveness. It is well past the period which can rightly be termed "experimental" and represents the type of institution which can provide youth with the proper kind of education.

ROAD SAFETY

THE campaign for safety on the highways needs to be ever before us. Sane driving of motor vehicles and careful use of bicycles require constant emphasis. Reduction in deaths and accidents will be effected by campaigns which instill fear, but long-term improvement can come only by means of education in the proper use of vehicles.

Two important recent statements dealing with education for improving road safety should prove of interest to all secondary-school administrators and teachers. The one is a report entitled "Driver Education Is Gaining Ground," which was written by Julien H. Harvey, manager of the Accident Prevention Department of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies (60 John Street, New York 7, New York). The other, *The Proficient Cyclist* by Reginald C. Shaw, is a pamphlet printed and distributed by the Royal Society for the Prevention

of Accidents in London (Terminal House, 52 Grosvenor Gardens).

The statement by Harvey covers only five mimeographed, letter-sized pages, yet it is a most excellent review of the current status of driver education in our schools. Space does not permit a full reproduction here, but it is worthy of being read by all interested in greater safety on our highways. The first few paragraphs are quoted:

Some interesting figures on the progress already made were revealed in recent state reports. For instance, the number of secondary schools in the United States offering driver-education courses almost doubled in the last school year [1947-48]. The students enrolled in this type of safety training almost trebled.

Such revelations are gratifying to those concerned with safety and education, for it has long been an accepted fact that youths with instruction in safe driving are involved in about 60 per cent fewer traffic accidents than are those without the training. Not only that, driver-education courses tend to develop a safety consciousness in the pupil which is reflected in all other fields of danger. He learns to live safely in this modern, mechanized world by acquiring proper safety habits and attitudes. Hence the growing acceptance of driver education as a necessary part of the secondary-school curriculum is a long stride toward the eventual total reduction of preventable losses in life, limb, and property.

Complete figures on the growth of driver education in the nation are not yet available. But a tabulation of the records of 38 states participating in the annual "Driver-Education Award Program" gives a fair picture of the progress made during the past year.

In 25 states, where complete information was submitted for the program, 3,055 secondary schools are now teaching driver education where only 1,751 had such courses the

year before. Even better progress was made in student enrolment, with 223,230 taking the courses this year compared with 83,661 the year before.

But even with these great strides accomplished during the past school year, there remains still a great deal more to be done. We must face the fact that we have driver training in only about 15 per cent of the nation's 26,000 high schools. The complete reports of 25 states and partial information submitted by 13 others participating in this year's award program reveal the following driver-training record for 38 of the states:

Number of secondary schools, 19,006; schools with driver courses, 3,918; eligible students, 1,643,836; students enrolled in driver-training courses, 238,030.

Obviously, this is a long way from the desirable goal of courses in all secondary schools and all of the eligible students enrolled. Only one state in the Union has attained such a goal. For some years now North Dakota has made completion of a course in driver education mandatory to receiving a high-school diploma. All of its 369 secondary schools have the courses; all of its 7,576 eligible students were enrolled last school term.

One of the main stumbling blocks to establishing driver-education courses is the belief by many, many school administrators that such courses have no value if not accompanied by actual behind-the-wheel instruction—a facility they cannot afford. While it is true that training cars are beyond the reach of many school budgets, there are other methods of providing driver instruction. The Abington Plan, for example, is a program worked out by the high school at Abington, Massachusetts, wherein automobile-owning parents and interested citizens donate their time and cars to giving high-school students driving lessons. The plan not only costs the school nothing in providing practical training for students, it affords a refresher course in safety habits for adults at the same time. More and more

schools with safety-conscious initiative are following Abington's example.

The other article to which reference has been made indicates that the problem of education for road safety is not limited to this country. Nor is the problem one which involves only the driving of automobiles. The bicycle, if handled poorly, is also an instrument for trouble. *The Proficient Cyclist* conveys instruction in "Roadmanship," "The Rules of the Road," "Riding Position and Cycle Control," "The Proficient Cyclist's Machine," "On the Road," and a "Cycling Proficiency Test."

This is the kind of publication that presents clearly, precisely, yet interestingly, all phases of a subject, and it would seem to have the additional advantage of attracting young people of this country because it is intended for the population of another country. So directed, it takes the discourse out of the category of "preaching" and places it into the area of things that everyone should know.

The Cycling Proficiency Test is printed separately and can be purchased separately. The test includes evaluation of one's information and performance. It includes sections on maintenance and adjustment, riding position and cycle control, pedaling and braking, safe starting and stopping, signaling, and turning into a main road.

Not every detail of instruction or examination is applicable to the American situation. There is sufficient ma-

terial to make it worthy of use here, however, as well as abroad. The idea of the proficiency test impresses the writer as having real value, and it should prove of interest to boys and girls everywhere.

One very practical consideration before administrative officers is that of costs in connection with instruction in driver training. During the past summer the *School Review* received a copy of Research Report 32, issued on May 25, 1948, by the American Automobile Association, Washington 6, D.C., which presents data on the cost of driver-training courses. Part of this report is as follows:

This analysis is based on reports submitted by sixty-four high schools and four colleges in twenty-five states conducting driver education and training courses during the period January to June, 1947.

All schools used six-cylinder, four-door Pontiac sedans furnished through the courtesy of the Pontiac Motor Division. All cars were equipped with A.A.A. basic dual controls. In all 4,432 high-school students, 145 teachers, and 406 adults were trained. Many of these schools will, no doubt, reveal course changes as a result of experience gained. For that reason the information given here should not be considered as final but rather as the most typical information available at the present time.

SUMMARY OF PERTINENT FACTS

(Based on averages of reports submitted)

1. Road training per student	
Clock hours of behind-the-wheel training.....	4.0 hours
Miles of behind-the-wheel training.....	36.0 miles
Cost of car operation per student	\$1.65
Teacher's salary per student trained.....	\$14.70

2. Car operation on mileage basis

Miles per gallon of gasoline.....	11.0 miles
Cost of gasoline per gallon.....	\$.211
Cost of insurance per mile.....	\$.0142
Cost of all other operating expense per mile.....	\$.0123
Cost of gasoline per mile.....	\$.0192
Total car operation cost per mile.....	\$.0457
3. Car operation per month of 30 days (figures based on average of all cars in use)

Miles driven per month.....	630
Insurance cost per month.....	\$9.08
Gasoline per month.....	\$12.10
Other operating expense per month.....	\$7.75
Total car operation cost per month.....	\$28.93
4. Teacher's salary for 9-month term.....

\$3,285.00

GUIDANCE IN HIGH SCHOOLS

SINCE the turn of the century, most educators have accepted the principle of human variation. Any professional worker in our schools would have little difficulty in citing research studies which indicate individual differences in the interests, abilities, achievements, aptitudes, and personal traits of children. There is little, if any, opposition to the theories upon which programs of individual pupil guidance are based.

In spite of the acceptance of the theories, surveys of schools usually disclose relatively little evidence that these principles of guidance affect the day-to-day treatment of all the children. Far too often there is evidence of a program which, from the exterior, appears to fulfil the need for individual guidance but which actually has little effect on practices. Such activ-

ities as testing, keeping cumulative records, providing specific clinical services and other kinds of services, if they appear to serve all the pupils but, for various reasons, actually affect few pupils, present a picture of guidance in name only.

Professors Willis E. Dugan and C. Gilbert Wrenn, of the University of Minnesota, reporting on "Guidance in Minnesota" in the September, 1948, issue of the *Minnesota Journal of Education*, make the observations quoted below. It should be pointed out that they are talking about one of our most alert states both in regard to education and in regard to guidance.

In a study of guidance practices made by the editors of this page, it was found that Minnesota high schools (outside of the three metropolitan areas) have guidance services in varying amount and quality; some have much and some little, but all have some.

An effective program not only has one or two services well developed but has a reasonable provision for all seven of the following services:

1. *Counseling*.—This is, of course, performed to some degree by all teachers and administrators. It involves assisting the student in making adjustments to the present and in planning for the future. In Minnesota, one-third of the schools have someone other than the teacher responsible for counseling, but only one-eighth relieve teachers of class periods for this purpose. Only one-third of the schools have definite assignment of each student to a specific teacher-counselor, and only two-thirds use test results at all in counseling. Counseling is the most important single function and is one of the most poorly performed, with least allowance for the time and specialized skill necessary.

2. *Orientation of the new student*.—In many ways this is a strong function in

Minnesota high schools with from 40 to 60 per cent providing talks in elementary schools, pre-entrance interviews and handbooks.

3. *Social development through student activities, parties, dances, and leadership development.*—Almost every type of activity is represented in Minnesota high schools, with sponsorship and the proportion taking part being weakest phases.

4. *Job or educational placement and follow-up of students.*—This is one of the most limited of Minnesota school programs with only one-third or less providing any kind of placement or follow-up service.

5. *Health care and counseling.*—This is another weak spot in Minnesota. Less than one-third have annual physical examinations, only one-third of the exams are by M.D.'s, and only one-third of the schools provide nurse service and health counseling.

6. *Test program and personnel records.*—Testing in Minnesota is characterized by quantity but not by quality of service provided. From two to three times more schools give tests than interpret them to students. Tests other than scholastic aptitude and achievement tests are given in less than half of the schools. Small schools do far less interpreting than do large schools. About three-fourths of the schools have cumulative records for each pupil.

7. *Home-room and other group guidance.*—Here again, about two-thirds of the schools have home-room or other group guidance in name at least. Administrative and study-hall purposes are more frequently listed than counseling or pupil participation in group activities, the more legitimate functions of home rooms.

The administration of a guidance program is the function of the principal, but he must delegate leadership to an individual on his staff and work constantly to improve the quality of guidance services performed by all of his staff. One-third of the small high schools in Minnesota and over one-half of the large schools have someone other than the principal responsible for guidance leader-

ship and co-ordination. *Not enough time is spent in in-service training of staff for performing more effectively their normal counseling functions.* This is one of the very weak spots in guidance services of Minnesota schools.

The experience of this editorial writer in the conducting of school surveys indicates that infinitely more is being written and said about caring for individual differences in pupils than is actually being done. Some teachers testify that the forms of guidance, such as testing programs and cumulative records, have been introduced by administrative officers, who did not follow through to the point of applying the information to the specific problems of the majority of boys and girls. These superficial activities are sometimes said to be hobbies of the persons in authority; they give the appearance of a guidance program which, in reality, does not exist.

Another handicap to the program of guidance stems from the question of who is to be responsible for it. Some teachers feel that this program should be carried on by specialists who are trained and are paid for this purpose. The specialists, on the other hand, know that everyone must assume responsibility or a real program of guidance cannot be instituted.

Others, especially teachers to whom are assigned home-room guidance periods, feel that there are not yet available the materials which would aid them in making the home-room periods effective parts of the guidance program. They feel that, unless as-

sistance is provided, the general aims of the guidance program cannot be reached. General principles are necessary, but, unless these are interpreted in terms of specific action, no program of guidance affects the child. It has been true in the past that the leaders of the movement have emphasized the need for guidance in the schools but have been less concerned with suggesting definite provisions to care for individual differences in specific situations. More recently, however, much of the literature in this field is intended for the counselor and the teacher on the job. Among these recent aids, several may be mentioned.

A series of textbooks by N. William Newsom, Harl R. Douglass, and Harry L. Dotson entitled *Living and Planning Your Life* is published by the Monarch Book Company, Gunnison, Colorado. This series is intended for use in group-guidance activities for home rooms, guidance groups, and general-education programs. The authors explain the purpose and use of the series in the Preface to each volume. The following paragraphs are quoted from the Preface:

Student guidance is an essential part of the program of every secondary school. To provide this guidance, the school needs a definitely planned program. With life becoming increasingly more complex, the school cannot afford to leave it to chance and to hope that the student will go to the proper person or agency for guidance when the need arises. Rather the school must (1) lead the student to recognize his problems and needs and seek their solution and then (2) provide information or sources of information and direction for him in solving his

problems and meeting his needs. These we conceive to be the two major functions of guidance. The best way to carry out these functions is through a planned program of group guidance complemented by a program of individual guidance.

Although there are numerous books dealing with various phases of guidance, there is no series which gives the student a continuous program of guidance based upon his development from the time he enters the seventh grade of the junior high school until he finishes the twelfth grade of the senior high school, with a separate emphasis or objectives for each grade. The authors have accordingly prepared for student use a series of guidance books for each grade of the junior and senior high schools. These are group-guidance materials designed for home rooms, guidance courses, and general-education programs and intended to provide guidance for youth about basic problems of life. The proper use of these materials should cause the individual student to recognize his problems and to seek solution of them, thus creating a need for a concurrent program of individual guidance.

For each grade of this series—*Living and Planning Your Life*—there is a separate book with a definite and separate emphasis.

Another publication which will aid counselors and teachers in their specific tasks of providing guidance programs for pupils has come from the press this year under the title *Guidance Handbook for Secondary Schools*. It was prepared by the Division of Research and Guidance with the assistance of the Division of Trade and Industrial Education, the Division of Secondary Education, the Division of Health and Physical Education, the Division of Audio-visual Education, and the Division of Attendance and Child Welfare of the

Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools. The book is for sale by the California Test Bureau (5916 Hollywood Boulevard, Los Angeles 28, California), for three dollars a copy. The Foreword states:

This handbook is designed for use by all educators in Los Angeles County secondary schools who share in the responsibility for guidance of students. Naturally much of the content is designed for teachers and counselors who work directly with students. Suggestions for the organization and administration of a guidance program of special value to superintendents and principals are included.

The chief emphasis is on techniques, which run the gamut from standardized testing through observation, the interview, the questionnaire, and the case study, to evaluation of the guidance program itself. The list of modern guidance materials including basic references for guidance workers, should be of considerable value.

The foregoing publications are clear evidence of the trend in the literature on guidance toward providing useful aids to counselors and other school personnel whose responsibility it is to carry on a guidance program. With such practical aids, more should be accomplished in effecting better programs of guidance in the future than are at present being carried forward.

Aid in guidance through use of radio is relatively new as a service agency in guidance. It is especially useful as a means of disseminating information to pupils. The March-June, 1948, issue of *Pittsburgh Schools* describes some highly successful radio guidance programs dealing with the

special area of vocational guidance. The following paragraphs are taken from this publication:

The choice of an occupation is one of the most important decisions in the life of most persons. Schools must accept the challenge of giving pupils adequate information about vocational life in order that they may be able to match their abilities and skills with occupational requirements and thus make wise choices. Research resulting in new developments and rapid changes in professions, business, and industry have complicated the problem of giving such information to pupils during their high-school years. Such changes likewise necessitate frequent revision of books and pamphlets on occupations. This is a major task, too, when we consider that a program on occupations must meet the needs not only of those who plan to go to college, but also of the much larger group for whom high school marks the end of formal education. In IX A social studies, occupations are studied in a general setting with the social implications of living and working together. At this time each pupil must make a choice of the varied opportunities open to him. This choice is general and tentative, subject to change, as the pupil learns more about himself and occupations, but it should be made on the basis of the best information available.

In a sincere attempt to give up-to-date, accurate information about specific occupations of importance in the Pittsburgh area, Station KDKA, in co-operation with the Division of Guidance, has arranged a series of radio guidance programs on occupations. A list of occupations including blue-collar as well as white-collar jobs was prepared by a committee of counselors, and experts working in these fields were invited by Station KDKA to participate in the preparation of programs. An interview was arranged between the expert, a counselor, and two pupils interested in the field. This interview, really an informal discussion approximately one

hour in length, was then recorded by a sound scribe. From this material, a script, bringing out essential information about the occupation, was prepared by professional script writers of Station KDKA. The plan requires that the members of each interview group meet a second time to make a recording which is used for the program broadcast. Thus for the school year 1947-48 more than thirty-five busy men and women gave many hours to the preparation of the programs.

... Since it obviously is impossible for every high-school student to have an opportunity to talk over his interest in a particular occupation with a person who is successful in that field, the next best thing is for him to listen in while another person asks the questions he might ask if an opportunity were given him. It seems best for pupils to listen to the program in small groups, and various methods of organizing such groups are used. To a certain extent, the method used is determined by the type of equipment available. Some schools have combination radio phonographs, others have wire recorders, but most schools have small portable radios which may be the school property or may belong to teachers or pupils who are willing to bring their own receivers to school on the day of the broadcast.

The method developed by the Pittsburgh schools for disseminating occupational information to their pupils will, in all likelihood, set a pattern that will be followed by many other school systems interested in getting to their pupils up-to-date information about occupations.

PROCEEDINGS OF EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCES

JUST off the press at this writing are the proceedings of four summer conferences held in 1948 by the Department of Education of the University of Chicago. Orders for the books

may be sent to the University of Chicago Press, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Basic Instruction in Reading in Elementary and High Schools, edited by William S. Gray, presents the papers given at the Conference on Reading. They consider the question: "How can elementary and high schools develop most effectively the basic understandings, attitudes, and skills involved in self-reliant independent reading?" The penetrating discussions consider the role of basic reading instruction, prevailing patterns of basic instruction, grouping of pupils, learning environments needed, materials for promoting reading growth, nature of basic reading skills, effective teaching techniques, and co-ordination with reading in content fields. The price of the book is \$2.50.

"*Arithmetic 1948*," edited by G. T. Buswell, includes the papers delivered at the Third Annual Conference on Arithmetic. The speakers discussed the use of multi-sensory aids in developing arithmetical meanings, the meanings that should be tested, techniques for evaluating outcomes of meaningful instruction in arithmetic, the relation of meanings in problems to the teaching of problem-solving, practical questions involved in the use of workbooks and in supervisory and administrative operations, and the professional preparation of teachers of arithmetic. The book sells for \$2.50.

The Administration of Schools for Better Living, edited by Dan H. Cooper, reports the addresses given at the Co-operative Conference for Adminis-

trative Officers of Public and Private Schools, which was sponsored by the School of Education of Northwestern University and the Department of Education at the University of Chicago. The speakers discussed the shaping of the school curriculum to promote social betterment and considered the areas of food, clothing, shelter, safety, health, citizenship, intergroup relations, international peace, and personal and community development. The preparation needed by the teacher and the responsibilities of the administrator were given attention. This book is priced at \$3.50.

The Community Responsibilities of Institutions of Higher Learning, edited by Norman Burns and Cyril O. Houle, publishes the papers presented at the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions. Ten authorities discuss community services as an emerging function of higher-education institutions; conditions for effective adult learning; industry's and labor's concern with adult education; community services performed by state-controlled institutions, the liberal arts college, the junior college, the teacher-training institution, and the urban university. The price of this book is \$3.00.

STUDENT COUNCIL HANDBOOK

PUBLISHED in September, *The 1948 Student Council Handbook*, is now being distributed to all members of the National Association of Student Councils. The publication is intended as a guide for student councils, council sponsors, and high-school administrators.

The new handbook contains a summary of the 1948 conference, a report of the recommendations of 20 discussion groups concerning student-council practices and procedures, an account of 54 student-council-community projects, a convention manual to assist groups responsible for organizing and directing a student-council convention, a directory of student-council associations throughout the country, and a list of member-schools in the national association.

Copies of the 1948 handbook may be obtained from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C., at one dollar a copy. Other books available at a dollar each are *The Student Council in the Secondary School* and *The 1947 Student Council Handbook*.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR DECEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles by ROBERT C. WOELL-

NER, associate professor of education, assistant dean of students, and director of vocational guidance and placement at the University of Chicago. LELAND L. MEDSKER, dean of Wright Branch, Chicago City Junior College, and president of the American Association of Junior Colleges, traces the changes that are continually taking place in the secondary school and suggests the implications of this constant development for guidance and personnel workers. BRUNO BETTELHEIM, associate professor of education and principal of the Orthogenic School at the University of Chicago, considers the emotional needs of adolescents and explains how the social-studies teacher can help these young pupils gain stability. CAPTAIN CHARLES FREDERICK HOFFMAN, quartermaster at Fork Union Military Academy, Fork Union, Virginia, describes the academic and extra-cur-

riculum life in a military school and points out the place of such schools in the nation today. RICHARD A. CLARKE, graduate student at the University of Wisconsin, discusses the application of general semantics to art education. ALFRED C. RAMSAY, principal of Glen Ridge High School, Glen Ridge, New Jersey, reports an investigation of a sampling of the graduates who ranked in the lowest quarter of their classes in Glen Ridge High School. NORMAN BURNS, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago, and JOHN R. MOOK, teacher at Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois, present a list of selected references on higher education.

Reviewers of books ROBERT H. ANDERSON, principal of Roosevelt School, River Forest, Illinois. V. HOWARD TALLEY, assistant professor of music at the University of Chicago. EDWIN S. LIDE, teacher of English at Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois.

CHANGES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR PERSONNEL WORK

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CHANGE CHARACTERISTIC OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

AS ALL educators and many laymen know, the secondary school is changing. In fact, its whole history is one of continuous change. From the establishment of the Latin grammar school in Massachusetts in 1647, through the days of the academy, on to the development of the modern high school, the secondary school has been almost constantly in the process of change as a result of its attempts to meet the citizens' needs for education.

The academy attempted to shift curricular emphasis from education in the classics to education that would meet the needs of the middle class, many of whom would not attend college. The early American high school, like the academy, began with an emphasis on education for life, but the traditional college-preparatory curriculum was still dominant. In the early part of the present century, not much change in the objectives of secondary education was brought about, although there was taking place a gradual damming-up of forces which later brought changes. It was in the

1930's that a number of important studies came forth to give expression to the backlog of needs still unmet by the secondary school. One needs only to mention the studies made by the American Youth Commission, the New York Regents' Inquiry, the Educational Policies Commission, and the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association to recall the vast amount of thinking that was done in this period with respect to the inadequacies of education at the secondary level.

As an example of some of the thinking, I quote from *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, which reports that, as the Study carried on by the Progressive Education Association got under way in the 1930's, the directing committee and the representatives of the thirty schools adopted two major principles to guide their efforts. The first principle was that the general life of the school and the methods of teaching should conform to what is known about the ways in which human beings grow and learn. The second principle was that the high school in the United States should rediscover

its chief reason for existence. As the study further continued, the participating schools proceeded on the following bases:

1. The curriculum of the secondary school should deal with the present concerns of young people as well as with the knowledge, skills, understandings, and appreciations which constitute our cultural heritage.

2. Every school in the Study sought from the start to develop greater unity and continuity in the curriculum.

3. The schools realized that they must know each student well and guide him wisely.

4. The schools recognized their responsibility for measuring, recording, and reporting the results of their work.

5. The . . . schools hoped that more satisfactory relations with colleges and universities would be developed.

6. [The schools] doubted that success in college depends upon the study of certain subjects for a certain length of time.

7. The schools believed that there are many different avenues of study and experience by way of which young people could develop the skill, understanding, and intellectual maturity necessary for satisfactory achievement at the college level.

8. [The schools were] convinced that some means should be found by which teachers in high schools and professors in colleges should work together in mutual respect, confidence, and understanding.¹

These statements of belief are indicative of the spirit that has prevailed in the past several years. Together with the many other studies reporting similar results, they seem to point the direction in which the secondary school is moving.

¹ Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, pp. 20, 21, 22, 23. Adventure in American Education, Vol. I. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

This discussion, however, must not rest merely on consideration of the evolution of the secondary school. Rather it must consider what the secondary school is *today*. Specifically, we may ask: "Just what is the nature of the secondary school today?" "What is the nature of the changes taking place today?" At the risk of being naïve or of oversimplifying or, even more likely, at the risk of omitting certain characteristics of secondary education today, I shall proceed on the basis that the following four characteristics give a clue to the answers to our questions.

THE PRESENT-DAY SECONDARY SCHOOL

A democratizing agency.—First, the American secondary school is growing rapidly as a democratizing agent. The story of the growth of high-school enrolments in the United States is so familiar to all that it scarcely needs attention here. The enrolment of only 200,000 high-school students in 1890 as compared with about 7,000,000 today is significant. Of greater importance is the fact that in 1890 only 7 per cent of the students of high-school age were in school as compared with 73 per cent of those eligible in 1940. Recently in certain communities high-school enrolments have declined. In the nation, however, the number of students eligible to enter high school will decrease for about two years, and thereafter the trend will be reversed as an increasing number of children attain the age of fourteen. It is pre-

dicted that the number will increase rapidly up to 1961, when there will be around 50 per cent more children aged fourteen than there were in 1945.

These data are significant in two respects. First, they indicate the physical load which high schools must carry. Second, they indicate the schools' great responsibility arising from the fact that the people's children—the children from parents of every walk of life, of every social and economic level, and of every known objective—look to the high school for education and training.

Extension upward and downward.—

A second characteristic is that the scope of secondary education has been extended vertically, both downward and upward. There may not be complete unanimity of opinion concerning just where secondary education begins or where it ends, but there is at least a growing belief that pupils in Grades VII and VIII are, in many respects, more similar to students of high-school age than they are to children in the first six grades.

Likewise, there is a growing opinion that secondary education extends through the two years immediately beyond the usual high school and includes Grades XIII and XIV, or the usual junior-college years. This concept is perhaps one of the most dynamic and fast-growing in American education. It is not new; long before a junior college ever existed, certain great university leaders, such as President Folwell of the University of Minnesota, President Tappan of the

University of Michigan, President James of Illinois, and William Rainey Harper of the University of Chicago advocated that the secondary school should take care of students normally enrolling at the university for their first two years of work and thus leave to the university its real job of university education. In any event, many school districts now include the junior college as part of the common-school system. Many states regard it as such, and the next decade will undoubtedly see a growing tendency in this direction.

Thus those of us who work in the secondary-school program must learn to think of the secondary school as an institution which encompasses a much greater territory than that originally conceived.

Tendency to become life-centered.—A third characteristic is that the secondary school is becoming more life-centered. Numerous lists of objectives, all excellent and all recently conceived and advocated by various worthwhile studies and commissions, could be cited to prove this statement, but the philosophy of the Educational Policies Commission summarizes well the thinking that underlies most attempts at curriculum reform. The Commission says:

Schools should be dedicated to the proposition that every youth in these United States—regardless of sex, economic status, geographic location, or race—should experience a broad and balanced education which will (1) equip him to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth

and social usefulness; (2) prepare him to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship; (3) give him a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness; (4) stimulate intellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally; and (5) help him to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society.²

Every reader doubtless is able to identify many secondary schools that are working in the direction of fulfilling such objectives. No longer do we believe that the secondary schools exist for the sole purpose of preparing students for college. Here a valuable lesson was learned from the Eight-Year Study and reported in *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*.³ One purpose of this study was to find out whether traditional college-entrance requirements and examinations affected students' success in college and what secondary schools would do if these requirements and examinations were abandoned. It was found that the graduates of the thirty experimental schools which reorganized curriculums without respect to college-entrance requirements did as well as the graduates of schools meeting these requirements. In every measure of scholastic competence, and in many aspects of development which are more impor-

tant than marks, the students from the thirty schools did better. The further the school departed from the traditional college program, the better was the record of its graduates. Perhaps of even greater importance, however, was the finding that the new program also tended to make for better preparation for success in life as well as in college.

Not only are secondary schools becoming aware of the desirability of paying less attention to strict college requirements, but colleges also are rapidly coming to recognize that ability to succeed in college does not depend, to any great extent, on a particular pattern of courses followed in high school. True, certain requirements still must be met, but the growing recognition of entrance and placement tests and the wider latitude with respect to sequences undoubtedly point the way to much more flexibility in preparing for college than we have had in the past.

The functional curriculum.—The fourth characteristic of secondary education is actually related to the third. It has to do with the trend toward a functional curriculum which, of course, is one way of attaining the objectives of a life-centered school. As Spears has so aptly said, "Curriculum leaders, backed by ample research, have pointed out again and again that we learn what we live, that use strengthens and disuse weakens, and that the learning situation is most effective when it respects the life and needs of

² Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*, p. 21. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1944.

³ *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*. Adventure in American Education, Vol. V. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943.

the learner."⁴ As Spears also indicates, the progress made before the war in relating the curriculum to life was accentuated by the war-training program, in which subjects took on practical application. It is this philosophy that is directing us toward a definite tie-up between the school and the community and that is responsible for the trend in utilizing community projects as learning experiences of students.

By functional curriculum may be meant many things, not all of which are found in any one school. There is sure to be emphasis on general education. This term, as we all know, may have different meanings to different people. Usually it implies the growth and development that every person must have in order to live intelligently. It is often used synonymously, though perhaps erroneously, with "subjects" or "methods of grouping subjects." It implies at least an effort to build a curriculum that will develop basic qualities in students.

Seldom is general education discussed at the secondary-school level without mention of the core curriculum. Of all the curricular developments in the past decade, the idea of the core curriculum is perhaps the most influential. Again, there are various degrees of the core curriculum. Broadly conceived, the term implies the setting-up of a required curriculum, without regard to subject matter,

around those experiences generally common in life. For example, a core may be built from the formerly separate fields of social studies, English, art, and music, with an attempt to fuse all into a plan that will develop fundamental concepts and processes. Sometimes, on the other hand, "core curriculum" simply means a pattern of required subjects. In any event, the trend toward a certain requirement, with time left for student choice according to some plan, is unmistakable.

This margin of choice over and above the core leads to another curricular problem. It has to do with vocational training. The opportunity to learn some basic skills making for employability is regarded as a logical right of secondary-school students. Since all levels of ability are represented among students, the inclusion of various occupational training programs is desirable, not only to provide for all who wish a skill, but also to provide them with an interest in the school. Careful consideration is being given, however, to the problems of when and how specific vocational skills should be taught. Likewise, attention is being given to broad exploratory courses in such areas as household arts and mechanics, business, the metal trades, and the wood-working trades.

Related to the matter of vocational training is the growing recognition of work experience and the practice of giving school credit for such experience. It is difficult to predict how fast

⁴ Harold Spears, *The Emerging High-School Curriculum*, p. 5. New York: American Book Co., 1948 (revised).

the utilization of school-work programs will grow. The increasing amount of thought and attention given the subject is indicative of the slow and gradual trend toward such programs—a trend with which secondary-school people must be concerned.

RECAPITULATION

In a nutshell, then, we may identify these characteristics of the secondary school which have implications for personnel workers: (1) The secondary school is changing, not static. (2) More young people of secondary-school age are attending school. (3) The span included in the secondary area is being extended downward and upward. (4) The school is becoming more life-centered. (5) The curriculum is undergoing fundamental changes and is becoming more functional.

It now becomes our responsibility to analyze the implications which these characteristics have to personnel work at the secondary-school level.

GENERAL IMPLICATIONS

Perhaps it would be well first to consider some of the basic general implications of the present scheme of things in the secondary school. Four such implications may be mentioned.

Personnel problem is large.—The magnitude of the personnel problem in today's secondary school is great. The very nature of secondary education—the facts that it is becoming life-centered, that it must provide for individual adjustments, that it is concerned with the whole student, and

that it embraces all kinds of students with various levels of ability and with many different ultimate plans—certainly is an indication that “teaching” per se cannot accomplish the job alone.

It is interesting to note that the history of the guidance movement tends to parallel the development of the new concept in secondary education. Somewhere in the beginning of the present century we began talking about individual needs. The development of the student personnel program over the half-century has been interesting and significant because each time we took a step in the direction of broadening the scope of the secondary-school program, we also, by necessity, took a step in the direction of emphasizing the guidance function. As early as 1926, President Coffman made this statement:

A generation ago we sought the safe and easy way of administering the schools. . . . The only record that was kept of the pupil was the record of his success or failure in his studies. The best guess as to a pupil's ability was the opinion of his parents unless, perhaps, the pupil was fortunate enough to have a particularly capable and discriminating teacher. . . . More recently we have awakened to the significance of an important fact. It is the fact that human nature is variable, that individuals differ from one another . . . a child in school cannot and should not be considered with reference to his intellect alone. He must be considered as a personality.⁵

We can easily visualize the compli-

⁵ In William Claude Reavis, *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*, pp. x-xii. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926.

cations accruing to the personnel program when we think of the range of personnel adjustments with which we become concerned in secondary education today. For example, we become very sober about our responsibility when we remember that we shall have to assist students in such areas as home and family life, safety, ability to get along with people, ability to adjust to a broadened educational program, vocational choice, vocational preparation, proper utilization of work experience, and possibly job placement. There can be no denying that the magnitude of the problem is extremely great.

Broad outlook in guidance workers.—

There is need for guidance workers to know and to consider the over-all objectives of secondary education. Without any intent to criticize (if one is guilty, we are all guilty), I venture the opinion that personnel workers are likely to become so engrossed with the personal problems of each day and of each case that they sometimes forget the broad aspects of education at the level at which they work. For example, there may be counselors who know well the techniques of interviewing and testing but who are not too familiar with the major trends in secondary education. There may be personnel workers who are not fully aware of the part that the classroom teacher must play in the personnel function. It is often true that personnel workers are unmindful of the fact that secondary education is rapidly being extended upward to include the

junior-college years and thus their counseling and guidance activities in the high school are carried on with little regard to the place of the junior college in the total picture of secondary education. Some personnel workers may not be fully acquainted with, or concerned about, the place of general education and the core curriculum in today's school.

Attitude of classroom teachers.—

There is a need for appreciation on the part of classroom teachers of the importance of personnel work. As Ruth Strang has so well pointed out, the classroom teacher must assume responsibility for a great deal of guidance and counseling:

Wherever and whenever teachers have been concerned with helping each individual to realize his potentialities, they have exemplified the personnel point of view and rendered guidance services. . . . Personnel work, in some sort of spiritual way, must pervade the entire school. It ought to be like fresh air—so natural and pervasive a part of our total living that we scarcely ever bother even to talk about it. Sometime the words "guidance" and "personnel work" may drop out of education entirely.⁶

This is not to say, of course, that we do not have need for, and will not continue to have need for, specialists in the field of personnel. The point is not only that teachers in the classroom must do a certain amount of individual counseling but that they must also have a keen over-all appreciation of the importance of personnel work.

⁶ Ruth Strang, *The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work*, p. 29. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946 (revised).

There have been innumerable instances in which many good phases of a student personnel program were restricted in effectiveness by negative attitudes on the part of teachers generally. It is often surprising to note that, as teachers become familiar with personnel objectives and duties, they become much more effective teachers. In my own institution we have seen time after time that, when an instructor could spend a certain amount of time in doing counseling work, he not only became more enthusiastic about the place of counseling in the total school program but also seemed to become much more interested in the students as individuals. As a result he undoubtedly made a better teacher in his own subject. Whatever the method, it seems clear that in-service training programs are needed to acquaint all teachers with the scope and importance of the personnel function.

Co-operation of school and community.—There is need of co-operation between community agencies and schools. Much progress has been made in the past decade with respect to closer co-operation between all community agencies, including industry and the schools. The war was a factor in accentuating this co-operation, although the trend is unmistakable. If the secondary schools are to become life-centered, if they are fully to utilize community resources in making teaching real and functional, then obviously community agencies must co-operate.

In the community agencies, the persons who perhaps occupy the most im-

portant place with respect to effecting co-operation are those in charge of the personnel function. Theirs is a job involving both policy and practice, and they can influence their respective agencies to co-operate with the schools. It would seem that industry and social agencies carry a heavy responsibility in helping the schools to produce the kind of workers and citizens which society needs.

SPECIFIC IMPLICATIONS

Consider now the specific implications which the changing secondary school has for personnel workers. Since problems are different in various kinds of schools and organizations, this discussion might consider the best organization of the personnel program, the best techniques, or controversial problems in the personnel field. It would seem more beneficial, however, to agree on points which are broad enough to be generally useful to all and yet specific enough to have definite meaning. Two such points will be mentioned.

Need for comprehensiveness.—The personnel program in the secondary school *must be comprehensive*. This statement, of course, is not new, and it is rather generally accepted. Yet secondary-school administrators may well ask themselves whether their programs are as broad as today's situation demands. It is not enough to stress vocational guidance as such. It is not enough to pride ourselves on our beautiful cumulative records. It is not enough to emphasize guidance

with respect to educational plans of students, particularly if those plans are usually thought of in terms of the students who are going on to higher institutions. It is not enough to have systematic testing programs. It is not enough to place our graduates in jobs.

If the secondary school is to attain its goal of developing the total individual, every phase of the student's life must be heeded and his program must be unified and related through guidance. This would mean that the personnel program should begin with the orientation program and continue to function broadly through the health program, the instructional program, and the program of educational planning. In the attention given to personal development, in the emphasis placed on vocational orientation, and in many other phases of school life, the personnel program must have a broad aim. If the school is to become more life-centered, with the learning experiences of the student grouped around contacts which he meets in everyday life, ingenuity and imagination will be needed to make such experiences available and effective. If students of all levels of ability are to progress through the secondary school and are to have experiences that are satisfactory to them and to society, the philosophy of the school—and certainly the philosophy of those doing guidance work—must be that each student is to be taken where he is found and the most possible done for him while he is in the school. If the core curriculum or “common learn-

ings” program is used, guidance possibilities within it are infinite. If the secondary school is universally extended upward, educational and vocational planning become all the more important. There is hardly an end to the scope of the personnel program.

Effective organization.—The second point of possible agreement is that the *organization* of the personnel program *must be effective*. Organization is merely a means of implementation, and satisfactory results cannot be obtained without good organization; but, since the type of organization that is best for one school may not be best for another, a formula cannot be prescribed. There will undoubtedly be specialists in most schools, perhaps more specialists as time goes on. Yet we seem to be at the point where the personnel job has outgrown the specialist. The very nature of individual consideration necessitates a growing amount of guidance activities on the part of teachers. Certainly the core-curriculum teacher is directly responsible for much guidance, just as is the home-room teacher and other special teachers.

The opportunities of the subject-matter teacher to do guidance work are legion. In the field of literature, for example, unlimited opportunities exist to select biography and other reading materials which will help students in developing correct attitudes, in effecting personal adjustments, and in making vocational choices. There are boundless implications in any subject for adjustment purposes, which may

skilfully be pointed out by the teacher. The Co-operative Study in General Education brought out the opportunity in general education for developing inventories designed to measure beliefs and attitudes as well as for developing a satisfactory philosophy of life. The wise use of instructional materials and the willingness of teachers to teach individuals and not subjects can accomplish much for guidance.

If we accept the principle that the organization of the personnel program includes classroom teachers, we may ask about the relationship between such teachers and the specialists. There will be a merging of effort, a program of co-operation. Specialists can do much to facilitate the work of the program carried on by teachers.

Any plan will cost money; the programs of individual development

which have been recommended by every commission and agency reporting in recent years cannot be provided by the secondary school without cost. Administrators must give serious thought to the problem of how best to plan the organization of the personnel program in their institutions so that all members of the staff will work together on a businesslike basis and no possibilities for effective work will be overlooked.

Twenty years ago and more, Henry C. Morrison said that the school must do systematically and on a large scale what could be done, and often was done, by the village schoolmaster.⁷ The instructional program alone cannot do it; the personnel program must help.

⁷ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 641. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1926.

THE SOCIAL-STUDIES TEACHER AND THE EMOTIONAL NEEDS OF ADOLESCENTS

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IN PERIODS of developmental growth the individual either can progress toward the next developmental stage or can remain stationary. If he already feels insecure, if he fails to master adequately the problems which confront him at the moment, there is little incentive to progress. The insecure person is usually too afraid to try newer and more complex things. Instead, he clings to the old developmental tasks which he knows and which, therefore, seem less threatening than the new ones.

All too many adults fail to achieve full maturity in their emotional life, their aspirations, and their social relations. In some way they become arrested at the level of adolescence. One of the responsibilities of the teacher, and of the social-studies teacher in particular, is that of helping his students become mature citizens. This maturity can be achieved only if adolescent students are assisted in mastering their emotional problems, so that they may outgrow adolescence and become mature adults. In this article an effort is made to show that the subject matter of the social studies provides a unique tool for helping adoles-

cents to meet their emotional problems.

ADOLESCENT INSECURITIES

Adolescence is an age of great changes and, like all states of great changes, is characterized by insecurity. Efforts to deny or to cover up this fact are doomed to failure. Much as we should like, we cannot give actual security to the adolescent. We can, however, help him to deal with his anxieties by offering him the only tool with which he can successfully master them—intellectual understanding.

Within the adolescent there are certain stationary and propulsive forces which are greatly at odds. The propulsive force of his physiological development cannot be stopped, and the propulsion of his social development is by no means guaranteed. On the contrary, the energy needed for mastering and integrating the biological propulsion is tremendous, and the adolescent is drained of much vital energy at a moment when he needs it badly to power his sociological drives. The adolescent, with his changing voice and his unruly body, finds it difficult to integrate these new devel-

opments into an acceptable pattern. The loss of mastery over his own body contributes greatly to his feeling of inadequacy and thus contributes to additional insecurity.

It is not his physiological development alone which reduces the adolescent to a state of insecurity. He also lives in a continuous, anxiety-evoking dilemma—biologically, emotionally, and culturally. His biological dilemma originates in the conflict between the reawakening of his sex drives and his inability to gratify them because of inhibitions and societal pressure. His emotional dilemma centers in the fact that, though he is no longer a child, he is not yet grown up; that, though he desires to free himself from his ties to his parents, he cannot afford to give them up. His cultural dilemma is highlighted by the many new grown-up duties and responsibilities which he is expected to fulfil although he does not yet enjoy adult rights.

During adolescence these dilemmas are insoluble, and once they are solved the individual is no longer an adolescent. Nor can the process be hurried; for efforts to solve these dilemmas prematurely may lead to a deviation of personality formation. Because of these dilemmas, the integrative tasks confronting the adolescent's ego are difficult. Therefore, the ego takes recourse either to healthy or to pathological defensive mechanisms in attempting to deal with the problems. Examples of pathological defenses are represented by the rigid or the explosive adolescent. The first denies or re-

presses part of his conflicts in a vain effort to free himself of their contradictions, but this device makes adequate mastery impossible. In his own way, the explosive adolescent avoids growing up by discharging his tensions immediately and violently instead of adequately mastering them.

Since direct mastery of his problems is not open to the adolescent, the most adequate approach for him is mastery through thought. Understanding provides him with some relief from direct pressures, and thus he is no longer immediately overwhelmed by his conflicts. The adolescent can master his problems somehow through intellectualization, which, at the same time, gives him the prestige and strength of ego that he badly needs.

Efforts at mastery through intellectualization are continuous in the adolescent. His thinking may take the character of daydreaming and, in pathological cases, even of delusional grandeur; or it can deal realistically with those problems which are of immediate significance for the adolescent's understanding of himself and of the world. The latter path leads to real, instead of delusional, mastery, but the adolescent can follow it only if he is provided with the necessary realistic material for his thinking. Therefore, he ought to be given adequate information pertaining to his dilemmas, and he ought to acquire methods for deliberating on them. Thinking strengthens the adolescent's ego, while action usually weakens it by defeat because he cannot yet act

successfully with regard to his most pressing problems. In this context the enjoyment derived from well-organized thinking should be stressed. Classroom thinking on problems vital to the adolescent has its emotional advantages also. The adolescent wants and needs group life, and group thinking is more fruitful for him than solitary thinking. Consider, for instance, the relatively small influence that lecture classes exert in changing adolescent attitudes in comparison with that of "bull sessions." The relatively weak adolescent ego needs the support which it receives from finding itself in accord with the egos of its age mates.

The importance of thinking and intellectualization as the adolescent's way of gaining mastery of his insecurities applies to the three main groups of his dilemma—the biological, the emotional, and the social-problem areas.

The biological dilemma.—During the preceding latency period, sex drives were comparatively slumbering or repressed. Now, during adolescence, they suddenly assert themselves with great vigor and create the adolescent's biological problems. At this point, sex drives are equally disapproved of by society, as represented by the adult world, and by the adolescent himself. Moreover, he is afraid of them. The reawakening of the sex urge is often a traumatic experience for the adolescent, because frequently he does not know what it is that so forcefully exercises pressure on him. This lack of recognition makes his drives even

more anxiety-provoking, and he feels overpowered by an unknown force which is beyond his control.

One of the ways to gain mastery over the unknown is to bring it to light so that it can be investigated. Nothing is so threatening and anxiety-provoking as the mysterious. If the adolescent understands what is so suddenly motivating him to behave differently from the way he used to, the knowledge may eventually lead him to deal more adequately with the new, uncanny forces within him. Besides actual information, the adolescent needs the conviction that understanding adults are ready to help him with his problems as they arise. This conviction gives him a feeling of security, which will be greatly enhanced if adults, by their method of dealing with his questions, show that there is nothing evil or secret about sex.

Unfortunately, most adults misinterpret the adolescent's interest in sex in terms of adult standards. The comparatively recent realization of the impact of emotions (and among them the sex desires) on educational problems has led to the misconception that many difficulties of the adolescent originate in the fact that he is unable to satisfy his sexual desires. The truth is that most adolescents are terrified by anything grossly sexual. Many sex delinquents may be compared with children who incessantly listen to gruesome radio programs or who claim to love "scary" movies. Actually they are terrified by them. They repeat their experience in the vain hope

that some day they may eventually overcome their terror by getting used to it. The parallel to the battle-fatigued soldier who continuously relives his battle experience seems obvious. Thus many sex-delinquent adolescents repeat their sex exploits in the misguided hope that they may one day overcome the fears, hostilities, and guilt feelings which are connected with these experiences.

Another cause of sex delinquency is the frequent prestige it gains for the adolescent within his group. Prestige is a central concept for understanding adolescent problems. The adolescent, plagued by insecurity, is in continuous need of approval—first, the approval of his group and, after that, of others.

The best help we can give him is to allow for his intellectual mastery, that is, his ego mastery, over his problems. He must be helped to understand his difficulties and the reasons for his need of prestige, as well as the ego-correct ways to gain it. Students might discuss how people gain prestige and why they need it. The discussion might show, for instance, that girls dress up supposedly to attract boys but that actually they do so in order to gain prestige with other girls. "Popularity," regardless of the merits of those persons with whom one is popular, could be revealed as an unsuccessful way to gain prestige because it depends on unpredictable, outside factors; whereas intellectual mastery is real mastery and is independent of others. The boy who tells his girl that he would rather just be with her and

talk to her than take her to a movie which he knows is shallow is acting on these principles though he is not aware of them. Helping him gain awareness of the motives for his own behavior would strengthen his ego through greater insight. It would also permit him, in the future, to act on the basis of conscious decisions rather than of vague notions, thus again improving, through thinking, the adolescent way of mastery.

With respect to the sex problem proper, many difficulties originate either in the absence of information, in prematurely given information, or in misinformation. If the adolescent does not receive the necessary information, he must try to find it for himself. Even the starting point for this sex exploration is unfortunate; since he was not told, he is not supposed to know. Therefore he feels guilty about his attempts to learn. Much of his sex experimentation is due to unsatisfied curiosity. Hence adequate sex information decreases the insistence on sex experimentation and simultaneously lessens the guilt feeling, anxiety, and insecurity. Adequate sex information helps the adolescent to gain mastery of his inner drives. It also increases his knowledge—and thus his prestige and ego strength—and gives him security.

The social-studies teacher, rather than the biology teacher, can help the students with the problems of sex because he can show the consequences of the new drives in their social context. This method of gaining information is several steps removed from the risks

of direct sex satisfaction and therefore less anxiety-provoking (and ego-weakening) for the adolescent. For instance, teachers can discuss how primitive societies helped the adolescent master his new drives by forcing young men to live together away from contact with women. Even more vital is the discussion of such contemporaneous phenomena as, for example, the zoot-suit movement. An analysis shows that these supposed sex delinquents are really fearful of, and hostile toward, members of the other sex. In "jitterbugging," the boys pull the girls toward themselves only to throw them away immediately. This dance routine indicates that they feel both attracted by girls and hostile toward them at the same time. They treat the girls roughly rather than gently, and this treatment suggests that they do not actually enjoy their pretended or real sex exploits but use them to gain status or prestige with other members of their own sex.

The emotional dilemma.—The adolescent's emotional conflict originates in his having outgrown childhood and not yet having gained status as an adult. He must give up the protection and the gratification of those dependency needs which he received from his parents as a child. Nevertheless, he is still subject to parental control and authority. In order to move out of the family circle, he must assert his independence and, by doing so, revolt against adult controls. At the same time he becomes anxious because, despite this revolt, he does not know

whether his parents will continue to accept him and to provide for him the necessities of life which he cannot yet provide for himself.

This ambivalent attitude toward his parents is revealed by the zoot suiter in his way of dressing. He looks like Junior wearing daddy's best suit. The coat is far too wide and reaches to his knees. The trousers are baggy, and he would step on them if they were not tied around the ankles. Daddy's key chain dangles far down, and the too big hat sits on his ears. He ridicules adults by overdoing their way of dressing. He is wearing daddy's clothes because he wants to look grown up, but, like a little boy, he is afraid of having his hair cut. Since he does not quite believe in his being grown up, he picks fights to show off his strength and daring. To further convince himself and his friends that he has reached adulthood, his suit must be expensive; for this also gives him the spurious prestige that money can buy. The zoot suiters are doubly marginal. They are marginal because of their social origin and because they are adolescents. Therefore they caricature those tendencies which are found in most normal adolescents.

Every normal adolescent is critical of his parents and feels guilty on that account. He needs intellectual help in understanding that his critical attitude is not the ingratitude of one individual but the problem of an age group. The child sees in his parents the most perfect beings. The adolescent has to reduce this childish overestima-

tion to an evaluation more in line with reality. In this context the study of the family as an institution may help the adolescent because it teaches that the structure of the family has undergone significant changes in history. It will also show that every human being is, in part, the product of his education, cultural background, and the modifying influences that were exercised on him during his formative years. This study may help the student to understand that his parents are neither wonderful nor old-fashioned but, in most cases, average people, who are the products of their society as much as he is the product of his society. In this way, the teacher can help the adolescent to understand his own parents and thus bolster his conviction that he can understand the world. This understanding gives him a new feeling of competence because nothing is more mature than to understand one's parents. Thus, maturity, insight, and benevolent understanding of others will become part of the student's life. Again it becomes apparent that thinking is *the* way of mastery for the adolescent. He must first free himself from his parents by means of thinking—through an intellectual understanding of what is involved in family relationships—before he can free himself from old family ties in actual life.

The cultural dilemma.—Society expects the adolescent to prepare himself for adult life at a time when he has hardly mastered the difficulties of adolescence. In this paradox lies his cul-

tural dilemma. The adolescent's feeling of insecurity is heightened by the conviction that he is living in a world which does not understand or appreciate him. Adults see in his stage of development only an awkward in-between age. Therefore he does not dare to be a real adolescent, though nothing can better prepare the adolescent for real maturity than having been a real adolescent at the proper time. Otherwise, in his forties he may have to reach for those adolescent pleasures which he missed at seventeen. Hence adolescence should be explained and studied as an important phase in its own right—a phase which performs significant tasks of social development—and not as mere preparation for adulthood. Because the adolescent feels his ego weakness, he cannot endure being depreciated as *just* an adolescent. Through psychologically correct gradation of responsibilities and rights, the teacher can implant in students the feeling of dignity and ego strength which they need for mastering their insecurities.

An important source of adolescent insecurity is the question of whether the adolescent will be able to succeed in the world of adults—whether he will be able to succeed in finding a job, in making a place for himself in society. The social-studies teacher might inform his students that not all opportunities are equally open to everybody. Much heartbreak and defeat in later life could be avoided if the adolescent were to gain a clear understanding of the limitations which

might interfere with his finding the particular job he has in mind. The teacher can explain to the students that the difficulty of deciding which job to select and to prepare for is a logical result of present-day society. He can show that, in former types of society, adolescents were not expected to solve such questions, since most children inherited the professions of their parents. The students can then understand that society itself is to blame for some of their difficulties and that not all their insecurity is due to lack in their own personalities.

It would be of help to the adolescent if his fear of whether he will select the right profession could be explained to him as the natural result of his being exposed to too many choices. A careful analysis of job opportunities would diminish the choices to a size that would be manageable by the adolescent. Here, as everywhere, the teacher's duty is twofold. He has to protect his students from being overpowered and, therefore, frightened by the magnitude of a problem—in this case, the number of possible job choices; he has also to impress on them that they have relative freedom of choice, thus convincing them that they have the freedom and autonomy of individuals who can arrange their lives on the basis of their own decisions. Because of their insecurity, many adolescents fear that they may become misfits. Here, again, intellectual mastery of fears can be offered through the study of society's obliga-

tions to those individuals who are unable to succeed.

The adolescent's fear of whether he will be able to earn enough money to support himself and his family could be alleviated by discovering which of all the common expenditures are the really necessary ones. Adolescent students should be shown that conspicuous consumption is an unsuccessful way to gain self-respect and security and that it is no substitute for securing one's own dignity and self-respect. In this connection the students should be asked to analyze the degree to which our high standard of living is desirable and the degree to which it is conspicuous consumption. They should learn that the adolescent enjoyment of gadgets is overpaid for if it takes the place of human happiness.

Other social fears.—The students should also be helped to overcome other social fears and insecurities through intellectual mastery. For instance, teachers can explain to their students how marginal situations, such as the one in which the adolescent lives, create insecurity which, in turn, generates fear and frustration and how all these lead to aggression. The pupils could study how aggression creates counter-aggression and thus increases fear. This study could become the starting point for an introduction to such problems as race relations. It seems unrealistic to approach this latter problem on the basis of moral postulates like that of brotherly love. The adolescent who is afraid of the Negro boy across the street will

not lose his fear if he is told that the Negro boy is "as good" as he is. On the contrary, such a statement, though perhaps true and certainly well meant, may only increase his fear with regard to the Negro boy's competition. It might be more effective to start by acknowledging the adolescent's fear of members of the out-group and to study the reasons why he projects fears, which originate in himself, onto minority groups. The adolescent who has been helped to acknowledge his anxieties and has been guided to an understanding of some of the reasons for his fear of competition by the out-group has gone a long way toward controlling his fear and, thus, toward overcoming group animosity. Real tolerance can be based only on a thorough understanding of the emotions of fear which underlie intolerance.

EDUCATION FOR UNDERSTANDING

In conclusion, it may be said that the greatest service the social-studies teacher can render to his adolescent students is to educate them to a critical understanding of themselves and of the society in which they live. The critical understanding must be equally distant from describing our society as ideal or as altogether bad. The first description would create a feeling of false security which must soon collapse, and the latter would create unmanageable insecurity. The continuous state of insecurity in which we all

now live has much in common with the insecurity of the adolescent.

Like adolescents, we must all learn to live in a continuous state of insecurity and to master it by intellectual understanding and critical investigation. Unlike adolescents, however, adults can rely on true and lasting interpersonal relationships to counteract modern man's isolation, alienation, and the reification of human relationships. Unfortunately the adolescent, because of his insecurity and because of the dilemmas in which he finds himself, is usually not yet able to form true, lasting, interpersonal relationships. The relations of adolescents to one another are short-lived and emotionally not very satisfactory, while their relationships to adults are at best ambivalent. Therein lies the teacher's greatest challenge. Through his own relationship to his students, he can indicate what true interpersonal relationships are, and he must do this although the students are unable to reciprocate. The teacher must set an example of the continuous critical examination and intellectual mastery of problems and, at the same time, of true, interpersonal relationships based on the help that he extends to others in their intellectual and emotional problems. What is more, the teacher must accept students as individuals in their own rights, so that he may learn never to consider man as a means but always as an end.

THE GROWING IMPORTANCE OF MILITARY SCHOOLS

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IN 1940, after England had suffered the staggering blow at Dunkirk, it became apparent that war clouds were threatening the United States. The government was already in the process of expanding the Army and Navy by building ships, airplanes, tanks, and guns, and by recruiting and training men for events that were destined to come. However, it was not until Pearl Harbor that the war became a reality. Then a full conversion of the industries in America from producing articles of peace to articles of war took place more or less overnight. It was also at this point that the Army was confronted with the tremendous job of disciplining, and of training in the modern methods of warfare, millions of American youths who had never before experienced military training.

Parents became conscious of the importance of having their sons, who would eventually enter the armed services, receive, in addition to their regular academic subjects, a thorough course of training in military science and tactics and discipline under one of the government's supervised Reserve Officers' Training Corps units. This

realization brought a tremendous avalanche of students to the military and naval preparatory schools throughout the country. In fact, so many candidates applied for admission that a vast number of the schools could not accept them all.

These institutions, it must be remembered, were faced with a multitude of problems and handicaps; for example, building materials were unavailable for expansion, and many of their instructors who held reserve commissions were called to active duty and had to be replaced. However, the military and naval academies met this crisis and did an excellent job of training thousands of young Americans, who made better-equipped, clearer-thinking soldiers or sailors when they entered service. This was proved by the fact that, for the many students who had attended military schools before the war and were there prepared and made ready to serve their country at this crucial time, it was an easy transformation from civilian to military life. In addition, these academies produced excellent officers, who were badly needed at this critical time in American history.

In this postwar period, military schools are becoming increasingly popular. American mothers and fathers know the importance of military training and discipline, and most of them are now convinced that this training is just as important in peace as in war; for the best assurance of peace is to have trained leaders and citizen soldiers who are ready to come to the aid of their country and who will have a knowledge of the situation confronting them and of how to handle it by doing well the specific job to which they are assigned and for which they have been trained.

CLASSIFICATION OF MILITARY SCHOOLS

Institutions having Reserve Officers' Training Corps units are classified as follows:

1. Senior division

- a) Class MC—Military colleges and universities which grant degrees. The graduates are at an average age of not less than twenty-one years. Require students to pursue military training during the entire time they are in attendance, require them to be habitually in uniform, and constantly maintain military discipline. These institutions have as their objective the development of students by means of military training and regulations.
- b) Class CC—Civilian colleges and universities which are not essentially military but which grant degrees and graduate students at an average age of not less than twenty-one years.
- c) Class JCMI—Essentially military schools, especially designated by the secretary of war as JCMI in Class II, which operate junior colleges but do

not confer baccalaureate degrees. Average age of students at graduation is less than twenty-one years, but the schools meet requirements of Class MC in other respects and accept and maintain the entire program of instruction prescribed by the War Department for the units of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps.

- d) Class MI—Essentially military schools, especially designated by the secretary of war as in Class MI, which do not confer baccalaureate degrees and at which the average age of students at graduation is less than twenty-one years, but which otherwise meet the requirements of Class MC and accept and maintain the entire program of instruction prescribed by the War Department for the elementary course of the Senior Division of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps and the Junior Division of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps.

2. Junior division

- a) Class MS—Essentially military schools which are not specially designated by the secretary of war as Class MI and at which the average age of graduating students is less than twenty-one years, but which accept and maintain the course of instruction prescribed by the War Department for the Junior Division of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps in essentially military schools.
- b) Class CS—High schools and other educational institutions which do not meet the requirements of any of the classes mentioned above.

Thus the postwar Reserve Officers' Training Course has two divisions, Senior and Junior, the Senior Division being further divided into an elementary course and an advanced course of two years each. The elementary course deals with the Army as a whole, while

the advanced course pertains, more or less, to specific branches of the Army.

PLACE OF DISCIPLINE

It is an old rule that, in order to be able to give orders, one must first learn to take them. Instilling obedience and developing leadership are two of the important functions of a military school in connection with discipline. First, the cadet takes orders, and then he is provided the opportunity to give them by holding a rank in the cadet corps. During this time a close watch is kept over him by officers of administration and by military and faculty personnel to see whether he has the high degree of leadership, initiative, and character that goes into the making of a capable and competent leader. Assuming the responsibility of serving as an officer helps to develop these important characteristics.

A cadet, through proper discipline, is taught that there is a time for each activity of the day—a time for study, for athletics, for the performance of military duties, and for social and religious functions. Before long he adapts himself to each of these four phases of his military life, and most men who enjoyed the advantages of these regulations in their early lives actually credit their later success to this training.

ACADEMIC WORK

As in all private schools, great stress is placed on academic work and on teaching the cadet how to study.

Naturally, there are definite required subjects—English, mathematics, science, and social studies—which a student must pursue before he receives his diploma. Classes are usually formed according to the ability of the student to learn and to acquire the academic work. Playing an important part in this segregation is the department handling the classification of cadets, which is known as the "guidance bureau" and which is headed by the guidance officer. It is this officer's job to determine the status of the cadet. When a student enters the academy, he is given a screening or aptitude test. Interviews and discussions are then arranged by school officials to assist the cadet in planning for his future. An outline of courses is prepared to show him which will benefit him most in his ambitions after he graduates. His interests may lie in business, engineering, or science, but it would be a great mistake not to guide him first to a broad, basic education and then to cultivate his interest in special subjects for which he has talent and interest.

The students are divided into sections or groups according to their ability in scholarship. In this way each cadet is placed in a section made up of students of his own ability in each subject. This method assures that his progress is fixed at the rate at which he can travel. The small classes, usually with ten to fifteen cadets in each class, provide for individual attention. In addition, a portion of the day is set aside for the cadet to receive special

help in any phase of his studies that he does not understand. The cadet may report for help voluntarily, or, in the event he needs extra instruction, the teacher may require him to attend the special class. A cadet who does not pass in his academic work for a given period is scheduled to attend the class in the deficient subject for a designated period, the length of which is prescribed by the school, in order to insure him a passing mark and in order to provide him with an understanding of the portion of the subject in which he has failed. For those cadets who attain a certain average in their academic work, usually 90 per cent, special rewards and privileges are granted.

Evening study, for the most part, is scheduled to be held from seven to nine-thirty. During these two and one-half hours, there is nothing a cadet can do but study. He is not permitted to visit, listen to the radio, write letters, read magazines, or do anything except study. Faculty officers are always on duty and available for help during this period.

There are also extra-curriculum activities which the cadet may pursue. It is important for him to cultivate his interests in debating, stamp-collecting, orchestra, radio, chess, singing, and many other activities, the choice of which depends on the desires of the cadet and the approved activities of the student body of the academy. Special programs, such as trips, speak-

ers at meetings, dinners, etc., are planned for each organization.

The athletic program forms an important part of a cadet's life, and, in order that he may receive the fullest possible advantage, most schools require each cadet to participate in some form of athletics each day. Under supervision, the cadet is taught how to play the particular sport in which he is engaged and how to be a good sportsman. To make sure that each cadet is given an equal opportunity to play, schedules are arranged for teams of various weights and for intercompany athletics.

MILITARY ACTIVITIES

The military portion of a cadet's life receives just as much attention as does the academic and athletic. Here, too, he is required to attend military classes in which he is given theoretical instruction in first aid, map-reading, military organization, marksmanship, and other topics which are outlined by the War Department for the training of officers. Each year the cadet receives new and advanced military instruction. On the drill field he is instructed in close order drill. He learns how to march and how to carry himself erectly, and he is given problems to solve in first aid, disassembling and assembling guns, firing on the range, extended order drill, and road marches involving tactical situations. These problems give the cadet an oppor-

tunity to put his previous instruction to actual use and to develop in leadership; for each year he is given increased responsibilities in the cadet corps. Neatness, orderliness, showing respect to immediate superiors and his fellow cadets, and acting like a gentleman are always stressed strongly in military courtesy, which is one of the first courses taught to the cadet.

A number of the schools have established a special honor company, which bears the name of a person who is connected, or who was connected, with the institution and who has done much for its advancement and welfare. Only the most proficient members of the cadet corps are permitted to be members of this organization, and it is the desire of all cadets to belong to this company.

Morning and afternoon inspections of the cadets' quarters are made by tactical officers. A cadet's room, therefore, is required to be in general order and subject to inspection at any time. This inspection applies also to his appearance. The importance of neatness and military bearing, both on and off the post, is impressed strongly, as the cadet is continually being observed.

Naturally, it is impossible to achieve a utopia. In any organization or group there are usually individuals who have to learn the hard way and, in this type of school, the hard way is the receiving of demerits and penalty tours which have to be "walked off." Demerits are received for any viola-

tion of the school's regulations if the cadet has failed to observe certain requirements. A few of the violations are: coming late to class, wearing an improper uniform, wearing unshined shoes, having a dusty locker, and being off limits. A cadet thus learns that for every wrong which he commits there is a penalty that must be paid. The cadet is allowed a certain number of demerits during a given period before he is considered "deficient in conduct." The number varies with the school. In this connection, an initial period is set aside for cadets to explain any reports which they believe to be unjust. Implicit fairness is exercised in this investigation.

RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

There are two other divisions to be considered, the religious and the social aspects of the cadet's life. To worship God, to honor and respect all faiths, whatever they may be, and to be tolerant of any person or groups are emphasized in his religious training. His attendance at chapel services is a required part of his activities in religious education.

The social activities must not be overlooked. Learning how to meet, associate with, and converse with all types of people and learning to feel at ease, and not nervous and inferior, are covered in the course in social customs. Dances, concerts, banquets, and special events arranged by the school provide diversion and entertainment for the cadet during the school year.

Thus, it can be seen that the life of a cadet is a planned and systematic schedule from reveille until taps. A typical week-day schedule follows:

Reveille.....	6:30 A.M.
Mess I.....	7:00 A.M.
Classes begin.....	8:00 A.M.
Classes end.....	12:30 P.M.
Mess II.....	12:45 P.M.
Afternoon class	
	1:30 to 2:15 P.M.
Drill.....	2:30 P.M.
Athletics.....	3:30 P.M.
Mess III.....	6:00 P.M.
Call to quarters	
	(study) 7:00 P.M.
Recall.....	9:30 P.M.
Taps.....	10:00 P.M.

It is obvious that the cadet is constantly occupied and is utilizing all his time to the best advantage. He has a set time to eat and gets the required amount of sleep, which is so necessary to a growing boy. Corps inspection and review are held on Saturday. Saturday afternoons and evenings the cadet is allowed a "pass" to visit town. On Sundays reveille is usually held an hour later. Room inspection begins at 9:30 A.M. and ends at 10:30 A.M., while first call for chapel service is at 10:45 A.M. Sunday affords a good time to write letters, although in the afternoon between three-thirty and four-o'clock, when the weather permits, full-dress parades are held. Military life, then, is not easy. There is plenty of hard work to do. However, for the most part, all but a few "make the grade."

Lasting friendships are formed at military schools. When cadets live,

drill, eat, study, and engage in athletics with one another, day after day, a firm, warm relationship is developed.

Thus, due to its limited and selected enrolment, the military school can become a builder of men, through its perfected academic course, its planned course in military leadership and discipline, and its supervised athletic and physical-training program. The religious and social activities are also important. The advantages of working under faculty members who have high ideals and who have worked out certain methods and standards are generally acknowledged. The disciplining of the mind and the training of future leaders have always been considered and recognized as primary and special functions of the military school. There are about 80 military preparatory schools in the United States whose responsibility is to train about 30,000 American boys each year. Their program and routine will produce not only better Americans but Americans who are better equipped to meet any contingencies that life may present.

With the advent of the atomic bomb, Americans realized that there had been developed a new, devastating and horrible weapon of war that would change the future events of the world. Although the atomic bomb brought peace to the world for a time, it now constitutes a constant threat to that peace, and we must never drop our guard for one moment. Americans must constantly be on the alert and be prepared for whatever may arise.

Keeping a well-equipped Army and Navy is now more important than ever before in the history of America. To have men ready to serve on short notice is vital, and the military schools are supplementing and taking a tremendously important part in this program of preparedness.

We know that the United States Military Academy at West Point produces officers who will plan the strategy and movement of troops—potential general staff officers—while Virginia Military Institute, Norwich University, The Citadel, and others produce first-class reserve officers who also rise to important positions of leadership. The preparatory military schools produce fine junior officers and soldiers. These schools insure security for the United States and the world. They are training leaders to preserve peace.

American citizens are becoming increasingly conscious of the grave situation in Europe today and are more sharply aware that it may affect all of us in the not too distant future. A young man who has obtained his secondary education in a military preparatory school is undoubtedly in a better position to adjust to universal military training or to the recent renewal of selective service. He will make a high type soldier, and his basic knowledge of military discipline and procedure will soon cause him to stand out in the average group. It is, therefore, needless to say that the military school does have a distinct advantage and place in American education. The records of these schools speak for themselves. With eyes on the future, the military school will continue to serve America and the democratic way of life as it has done in the past.

GENERAL SEMANTICS IN ART EDUCATION

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LOOKING at problems of human concern from many points of view instead of from the one traditional and conventional viewpoint provides a method of approach which has proved enlightening and useful. Thus, cultural anthropology, resulting from synthesizing the work of psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists, gives us better control over our world. The study of the effects of population sizes on the operation of Mendelian laws gives us a genetics which represents our world more accurately. This method of approach is accepted as a premise in this article. Applying general semantics to art education should enable the teacher to be more effective in his work by virtue of the fact that this synthesis represents the world more accurately.

Aims.—This paper will attempt to accomplish the following aims: (1) make explicit some of the premises underlying a general semantics-oriented art education, (2) systematize in a more general way the materials of art and art education, (3) present specific applications of general semantics in teaching, and (4) indicate some possibilities for further study. The material presented here, therefore, has been

edited with reference to these purposes and is not intended to tell all about general semantics.

OLD AND NEW CONCEPTS

Aristotle's laws.—Aristotle set down three "laws" which have dominated the thoughts and actions of the members of Western European civilization: (1) *A* is *A*, or a thing is what it is. (2) A thing is either *A* or not-*A*. (3) A thing cannot be both *A* and not-*A*. For example, Pearson, in *The New Art Education*, says that children, when learning the techniques of representing nature do not learn design, that such naturalistic painting cannot be within the "Grand Tradition" of art because it omits design as a principal objective. In effect, the art they learn is either naturalistic or is design (9). This kind of thinking dominated in the prescientific era and, to a large extent, still does today. The scientific method and logical thinking which are possible in the Aristotelian system are exemplified by Aristotelian logic, Euclidean geometry, and Newtonian physics. The system may be called "two-valued"; for in any situation only two possibilities or interpretations appear admissible.

The new orientation.—That only two mutually exclusive values do not suffice to account for many data in scientific studies became clearly recognized within the past century or two. Non-Euclidean geometries, non-Newtonian physics, and non-Aristotelian logics, which include the traditional systems as special cases, were invented. The non-systems appear more general. Alfred Korzybski, in his *Science and Sanity: An Introduction to Non-Aristotelian Systems and General Semantics*, formulates a (not the) general system based in part on the premises of these interrelated non-systems (5: 7). Korzybski contributed important premises:

1. Rejection of Aristotle's law of identity (a thing is what it is) and of Aristotelian allness—the assumption that words can tell *all* about the non-verbal world (5: 92-93).

2. Emphasis on consciousness of abstracting where abstracting means leaving out characteristics. For example, looking at a painting appears as an abstraction of low order; for the naked eye cannot see microscopic characteristics, the electron process of the particles of chemicals that make up the pigments, canvas, etc. A description of the painting (spoken or written) appears on a higher level of abstraction, since words cannot tell *all* about seeing the painting. Words and seeing are not one and the same; more characteristics are omitted in talking about the painting. Inferences about the painting appear on a still higher level because, again, more char-

acteristics are omitted. For example, if a painting is classified as "romantic," it is so named by virtue of its similarity to certain other paintings, and how it differs from the others is neglected (5: 383, 412-51).

3. Awareness of levels of abstraction eliminates confusion over "classes of classes" or paradoxes and phrases like "the meaning of meaning." The "identical" words in each example appear on different levels of abstraction (5: 225).

4. The process of abstracting has a natural order. The nonverbal object comes first, then, perception of it, name, description, and inferences (5: 359-60, 387-94, 444-45).

5. Korzybski points out that the dictionary merely tells us how to use words. Meaning depends on the human being's use of words and on the context. Hence, no word ever means exactly the same thing twice (5: 324, 375, 414-15).

6. Korzybski compares language to a map and states: A map *is not* the territory it shows. A map does not show *all* details of the territory. A map is self-reflexive (a map of the map can be made). Applying this to verbal language, a word *is not* the thing for which it stands, words cannot tell *all* about that for which they stand, language is self-reflexive (one may speak about language) (5: 498, 750-51).

7. The only possible content of knowledge becomes exclusively structural; that is, order where order remains undefined except by demon-

stration, as the order of numbers, 1, 2, 3, etc. (5: 56-59, 751).

If a person reacts to words as if they were the things which they represent, he identifies. This behavior occurs in almost all cases of insanity. Prevention of identification results automatically (through a nerve mechanism) when one acquires habitual consciousness of abstraction. The forming of the habits of "thinking" in terms of the process of abstracting is of crucial importance. One's orientation becomes many-valued. This orientation represents the nonverbal world more accurately and makes possible a higher predictability. Increased predictability is essential to the prevention of insanity and general unsanity in daily life (5).

The new orientation applies the most advanced methods and approaches of science to daily living. It can be taught to children as easily as the two-valued system, but adults who have been trained in two-valued "thinking" have a normal amount of difficulty in acquiring the new habits (5).

Korzybski emphasizes the non-elementalistic point of view. Man can be split verbally into "mental" and "emotional" parts, but this appears false-to-fact. Human beings interact with each other as organisms-as-wholes-in-environments. Human reactions are mental-emotional and cannot be divided into "emotion" and "intellect," except in words. Splitting of human behavior appears delusional because it is false to fact and ultimately reduces predictability. One talks in

terms of isolated elements which cannot be found in isolation on the non-verbal level. The verbal map here does not represent the nonverbal territory, and predictions become unreliable. Korzybski uses the term "evaluation" to represent the organism-as-a-whole response of individuals to situations; the term is non-elementalistic. It does not split the process of responding into elements. In general, non-elementalistic approaches to problems have given better map-territory correspondences, and higher predictability has resulted (5: 469-71).

APPLICATION TO THE TEACHING OF ART

In applying this orientation to the teaching of art, it will first be shown how the teacher is affected in presenting art subject matter and, second, how he is affected in his personal relations to his students.

Applying the new orientation to the teaching of art.—Applications of the new orientation to teaching methods have been made. Janice Vance Kent, writing in *Etc.*, a quarterly review of general semantics, describes classroom work which has been organized to make the students aware of the process of abstracting (4). The students were asked to make naturalistic contour drawings of a group of objects. The group was then broken into parts, and the parts were drawn in contour from *different* points of view. These parts were synthesized in designs which were to "fill the page." The students produced abstract compositions

and were more responsive to modern art than were students who had not had this experience.

In a conversation with Mrs. Adele Ortmyer, a teacher in West High School, Madison, Wisconsin, this writer learned that she presents perspective problems to her classes with regard for the natural order of abstracting (evaluation). The student learns to observe first that which he wants to draw. For example, he may put down on paper a vertical line to represent that corner of a building which is nearest him. By means of drawn or imagined construction lines he relates other visible parts of the building to the corner and works back in the picture plane to vanishing points and to horizon line (high abstractions) instead of drawing a horizon line first and trying to fit the sketch to this highly generalized beginning.

These two examples illustrate the method of applying two formulations of general semantics to teaching art—consciousness of abstracting and natural order of evaluation. The method is general, and applications can be made to any medium or problem. Both examples illustrate how the approach provides students with techniques of procedure; this is general, also. Applications to other mediums and problems will result in appropriate techniques of procedure.

However, merely to go through lessons that are planned with the general-semantics orientation known to the teacher and not to the students does not suffice. Students must be oriented

if they are to learn the material which is presented. The high-order abstractions appearing here need not be presented in class. The orientation can, and should, be taught in simple terms.

Students may be oriented in art by bringing to their attention the degree to which human beings depend on communication for survival. Symbols make communication possible; the use of symbols makes man unique in the world. Their use relates dance, speech, mathematics, graphic and plastic arts, writing, music, drama, psychomotor tensions, etc., to one another as equally valid languages, the verbal language being overemphasized in our culture. What is said here about using symbols in art may be applied to the other languages. One must know how to evaluate several of these languages today; for mass methods of communication (radio, movies, etc.) use combinations of them. Understanding and evaluation of what is communicated depend on understanding the use of combined languages.

Starting with the experience he has already had, the student learns that these languages are different ways of representing the nonverbal world about him. This representation makes possible the control of the nonverbal world and enables him to survive and to live in ways satisfying to himself and to society. If school subjects, as parts of a whole, can be related directly to the experience the student has had and is having, he will find the material meaningful. Relationships among diverse materials can then be

felt and understood, and the student can be expected to deal with them more effectively and to achieve on a higher level.

In class activities, direct and concrete experience with materials should precede learning that is based on the use of symbols. For instance, students should have tried one or two paintings before the techniques are taken up in detail. The meanings of symbols exist in the nervous systems that are using them, not in the symbols themselves. Hence, experience must precede use of the symbols.

The only connection between symbols and the nonverbal level that is represented appears to be structural. That is, the nonverbal may be symbolized only through some similarity, in order or relations (as map and territory), between it and the symbol. This relation of symbols to the nonverbal world, rather than the manipulation of symbols, should be taught.

Students should know that abstracting plays a fundamental part in all experience and that art processes appear as processes of abstracting.

Further work remains to be done: (1) revision of the directions which are used in presenting art activities, (2) investigation of art as communication with regard to the pertinence of currently used subject matter in the field of art, and (3) investigation of art-education premises to discover possible hidden assumptions.

The teacher's relations to his students.

—The second way general semantics

may affect the teacher, in his personal relations to his students, is as essential as the first; for a most important concern of the new orientation is the improving of human relations. By providing the teacher with a method of evaluation, general semantics enables him to live more effectively with his students in accordance with accepted scientific principles (principles of mental health, etc.).

Education postulates uniqueness of the personality, treatment of causes rather than symptoms, and observance of scientific attitudes in work. These attitudes derive from the application of general semantics and appear automatically when the new habits of evaluation become fixed. The teacher then evaluates situations and personal relations in terms of many values instead of only the dogmatic two values of the Aristotelian orientation. He evaluates nonverbal facts and not his own preconceived "ideas" and prejudices. He habitually considers that different causes may produce similar symptoms and that different symptoms may result from particular causes in cases of "failures," maladjustments, etc. The new orientation makes the teacher aware of the danger of "labeling" his students. In many cases the students, in reacting to the "label," live up to it and develop the symptoms and problems that are represented by the "label." The teacher himself may also be able to eliminate problems of his own that arise from his "labeling" himself. For example, some individuals in the field of the fine

arts seem to assume that, by virtue of their being artists, they must act "temperamentally," and they live less organized and less productive lives than they might had they not thus "labeled" themselves.

Plant has spoken about the need for training leaders (10). He says that this training depends a great deal on training in communication. The leader must be good in listening and speaking. The new orientation enables the teacher to demonstrate in his personal relations to students what the leader needs in order to lead effectively. Plant includes intuition as a method of communication which, he says, must be allowed to grow rather than to be made to do so. General semantics makes the teacher aware that, vague as this capacity may seem today, its possibilities for promoting human welfare should be exploited; for intuition underlies man's best creative work.

If education is to change attitudes—just as causes must be treated rather than symptoms—people's premises must be changed. This orientation is important in personal relations on all levels, teacher-student, teacher-teacher, administrative, etc.

Further study of how general semantics affects the teacher in his personal relations to students should apply the methods of the new orientation to principles of guidance and education.

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11. SHOEMAKER, FRANCIS. "Communication and Community Life," *English Journal*, XXXVI (November, 1947), 459-64.
12. WEINBERG, ALVIN M. "General Semantics and the Teaching of Physics," *American Physics Teacher*, VII (April, 1939), 104-8.

1. CHISHOLM, FRANCIS P. *Introductory Lectures on General Semantics: A Transcription of a Course Given at the Institute of*

ARE WE MEETING THE NEEDS OF HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS IN THE LOWEST QUARTER?

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IN APRIL, 1947, the visiting committee for the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools evaluated Glen Ridge High School. The over-all evaluation of the school stood at the eighty-sixth percentile. The final rating would have been much higher had it not been that the building is old and has inadequate shop, laboratory, auditorium, and gymnasium facilities. Every other item on the evaluation was rated either superior or very superior. The building was rated below average.

This article will report an investigation of a sampling of the graduates in the lowest quarter of their classes. The study grew out of certain statements which appeared in the final report of the visiting committee and which are quoted below:

1. The Evaluating Committee believes that the curriculum does not give enough attention to students [below the lower quartile].
2. A thorough preparation for college should be attained by students who attend Glen Ridge High School, but the needs of the lower 25 per cent should receive a new emphasis.

3. Approximately 25 per cent of the children of the school lack sufficient ability to do satisfactory work on the college level.

4. One method of teaching this group would be to place it in separate sections, giving these [pupils] different courses of study. Another method would involve their taking practically the same courses as their college-preparatory classmates and would, of course, necessitate a curriculum sufficiently elastic to be applied to a wide range of abilities and needs.

It is apparent from these quotations that, in the opinion of the visiting committee, 25 per cent of the students of Glen Ridge High School, those who stood lowest in their classes, were not being offered a program which would fit them for life. The visiting committee seemed to assume, further, that students in the lowest 25 per cent of the class either were not, or should not be, taking college-preparatory courses. After having been principal of the Glen Ridge High School for twenty years and having accurate records on pupil accounting, for both undergraduates and graduates, the writer feels that any such assumptions are open to question. Accordingly, the investigation which is reported here was made.

PURPOSES AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

This study was made to secure and to organize data which would throw light on the statements of the visiting committee just quoted. The following points of inquiry seemed necessary.

In the first place, it seemed essential to study the capacities and abilities of this "lowest-quarter" group in so far as intelligence tests would reveal this information. Our records provided the data. Then we wished to know exactly what had happened to our graduates who had been in the lowest quarter of their graduating classes. We also wished to find out what these graduates thought about their high-school curriculum experiences, especially after they had had several years of post-high-school life to test their school training. Finally, we wanted these graduates to give us their opinions and suggestions on curriculum changes.

In order to collect data on the foregoing points, a questionnaire was sent to fifty-five students who were selected from the eleven classes graduating from 1936 to 1946, inclusive. The selection was made on the following basis: The first two students at the top of the lowest quarter of each class, the middle student in the lowest quarter, and the last two students in the lowest quarter were chosen. The term "lowest quarter" was applied to rank in class on the basis of academic achievement.

The questionnaire was accompanied by a letter explaining to the graduates

the purposes of the study and requesting their help in improving our curriculum offerings. The questionnaire also asked for a brief résumé of the experiences of these students since their high-school graduation, including further types of education or training, war-service records, and types and kinds of employment.

The number of complete replies to this questionnaire was twenty, about 36 per cent. However, definite information was obtained from other sources concerning the majority of the group. Thirty-two of the graduates were girls; twenty-three, boys.

THE RESULTS

Table 1 shows the distribution, according to intelligence quotient, of the fifty-five students selected from the

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION, ACCORDING TO INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT, OF FIFTY-FIVE STUDENTS SELECTED FROM THE LOWEST QUARTER OF THEIR CLASSES*

Level in Lowest Quarter of Class	Intelligence-Quotient Range	Number of Students
First	129-111	14
Second	110-106	14
Third	105-100	14
Fourth	99- 71	13

* Based on the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability, Higher Examination: Form A, B, C, or D.

lowest quarter. It can be seen that forty-two of the fifty-five students have intelligence quotients above 100 and that only thirteen students have intelligence quotients lower than 100. If it may be assumed that a student

who has an intelligence quotient of 100 or better can, if he wishes, be successful in college courses, then the statement of the visiting committee ("Approximately 25 per cent of the children of the school lack sufficient ability to do satisfactory work on the college level.") may be questioned.

Below are listed the colleges and junior colleges which were attended by thirty-two of the fifty-five students:

many graduates enter colleges (about 60 per cent of the graduates from Glen Ridge High School do enter college), the great majority of students prefer to take college-preparatory courses. Whether or not some of these students expect to attend college, what valid reasons can be given for excluding them from such courses? Indeed, who can say that their needs have not been met by taking such courses as well as their needs would

Colleges

Associated Colleges of Upper New York	New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey
Bennington College	New York University
Lafayette College	Syracuse University
Maine Maritime Academy	University of Arizona
Maryland College for Women	University of Maryland
New Jersey College for Women	University of North Carolina
New Jersey State Teachers College, Newark, New Jersey	Upsala College

Junior Colleges

Berkeley Secretarial School	Ladycliff College
Colby Junior College	Lasell Junior College
Edgewood Park Junior College	New York School of Interior Decoration
Fairfax Hall Junior College	Newark School of Fine and Industrial Arts
Fairleigh Dickinson Junior College	Southern Seminary and Junior College
Green Mountain Junior College	
Katherine Gibbs School	

The fact that 58 per cent of these lowest-quarter students were admitted to reputable colleges is evidence that standing in this rank of a high-school class does not necessarily bar a student from admission to college. Should these students, then, be refused admission to college-preparatory courses in high school?

A further point needs to be made here. In a high school from which

have been met by taking non-college-preparatory courses?

Table 2 lists the present occupations of the fifty-five students. It will be seen that these high-school graduates are serving important functions in society. Suppose the policeman studied Latin in high school. Would he today be a better policeman if, instead, he had taken typewriting or mechanical drawing or salesmanship?

Suppose the model studied chemistry. Would she be a better model for not having studied chemistry? What "new emphasis" would have enabled these students to serve society or themselves any better than did the courses which they pursued?

The questionnaire asked the opinion of these fifty-five students with regard to the value of the courses that they had taken in high school. Four questions were asked. These questions, together with a summary of the

The replies which appeared most frequently mentioned the field of the commercial curriculum, namely, typewriting and other business courses, although the following subjects were also noted: chemistry, mathematics, Latin, trigonometry, and mechanical drawing.

3. *What subject or kind of education not offered by the school do you believe from your experience since leaving school would have been valuable to you in your occupational life?*

The replies to this question are not easy to summarize. Many of the respondents did not answer it. The subjects mentioned were

TABLE 2
PRESENT OCCUPATIONS OF THE FIFTY-FIVE GRADUATES SELECTED
FROM THE LOWEST QUARTER OF THEIR CLASSES

Occupation	Number of Graduates	Occupation	Number of Graduates
College student.....	15	Department store worker (responsible position).....	1
Housewife.....	14	Farmer.....	1
Industrial worker.....	4	Fireman.....	1
Secretary.....	3	Model.....	1
Clerk.....	2	Policeman.....	1
Nurse.....	2	Teacher.....	1
Salesman.....	2	Telephone worker.....	1
Typist.....	2	Textile worker.....	1
Aviation worker.....	1	Total.....	55
Bank employee.....	1		
Department head in large department store.....	1		

students' replies to each question, follow.

1. *Which subjects that you took in high school have been of most value to you in your occupational life since you left high school?*

The most frequently given answers were English and mathematics, although science, history, bookkeeping, interior decoration, typewriting, and mechanical drawing were mentioned at least once.

2. *Which subjects offered by the high school which you did not take when you were in school do you now think would have been valuable to you in your occupational life since leaving school?*

psychology, German, business courses, commercial art, remedial reading, salesmanship, and shorthand. The respondents also suggested that students who are taking commercial courses should learn how to operate the various machines which are used in business offices.

4. *If there are any suggestions you can make which might help the school be of greater service to the young people now in school, please write them here.¹*

¹ Curricular changes have been made since some of these students were graduated. Also the guidance program and testing program have been expanded.

The replies to this question were varied. Some of the respondents indicated that they missed the opportunities which were present when they were in school. Some of the comments which have significance are:

"Special teaching of the present economic life, history, and politics."

"Parents should definitely decide whether the pupil is going to college or not, early in his high-school course."

"A college education seems to be a prerequisite for any sort of a decent future today, especially since the G.I. Bill is turning out so many college graduates. This is probably not new to anyone in high school since I was told the same thing many many times but paid little attention to such advice until it was almost, not quite, too late."

"More commercial courses for those not entering college would be of benefit. An additional teacher in commercial courses would be desirable."

"I have always thought Glen Ridge should offer courses in cooking, sewing, and so forth, for girls and such subjects as auto mechanics for boys as many high schools do. I had no cooking courses or sewing, and I had to take them at the Y.W.C.A., while most girls in other high schools received their training in school."

"I think more training and emphasizing of correct speaking would be valuable to high-school students."

"I think architecture would be a wonderful subject."

"There should be a study of comparative governments rather than just a study of U.S. government. The same can be said for history."

"More vocational guidance, aptitude tests, and so forth."

"Your problem is one concerning a large group and one that is fickle. If one could make up his mind early as to his future, it would be that much easier for you. I believe

that if a person has no desire for college he should get more commercial subjects and practical experience for a few weeks in his chosen job which can be sandwiched in during the school year. Homework should be shortened and concentrated on one subject at a time. Mixing subjects is confusing. Take a hint from the Army. They concentrated on one subject at a time and drilled it into the men."

"Be careful not to label a student who is doing poor work as a dumbbell. An effort should be made to straighten out mental conflicts."

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study shows (1) that the graduates in the lowest quarters of their classes have the ability to take the college-preparatory course in high school; (2) that thirty-two of the fifty-five, or 58 per cent, were admitted to college or to junior college; and (3) that the graduates who replied to the questionnaire were, for the most part, satisfied with the curriculum experiences which had been offered to them in the Glen Ridge High School.

The results of the study indicate that the program which has been offered in Glen Ridge High School in the past ten years has, in the opinion of a representative group of the lowest-quarter students, met their needs quite adequately. The success attained by these graduates in whatever line of endeavor they have followed would cause one to question whether any other curriculum offering could have made them any more successful.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION¹

NORMAN BURNS

University of Chicago

JOHN R. MOOK

Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois



THIS list of references represents a selection from titles related to higher education that have come to the attention of the compilers between July 1, 1947, and June 30, 1948. As in previous lists, selection has necessarily been made along somewhat arbitrary lines because space does not permit inclusion of all titles that might be worthy of attention. Most monographs, books, and pamphlets have been included, with the exception of annual reports, yearbooks and proceedings of associations regularly devoted to problems of higher education, and institutional histories.

Selection has been based chiefly on the significance of the contribution to new knowledge; by no means, however, could all the worthy articles of this type be included. As a general principle, the list omits articles that

provide only a résumé of material available elsewhere. Most articles that are merely discussions or presentations of personal opinion and news notes and papers describing practices in a single institution have also been omitted.

609. ANDERSON, GORDON V. "Validity of General Educational Development Tests for College Entrance," *College and University*, XXIII (April, 1948), 371-81.

Makes a preliminary report of a study of findings from several different colleges, which indicates that the correlation between General Educational Development Tests and college success is better, on the average, than that between college success and the usual scholastic aptitude tests and is of about the same order as the correlation between high-school record and college success.

610. BADGER, HENRY G. "Administrative Policies Governing the Salaries of College Teachers," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIII (Autumn, 1947), 443-63.

Reports data, collected for the joint use of the United States Office of Education and the American Association of University Professors, concerning factors for determining salary and other questions of administrative policy.

¹ See also Item 219 (Phillips) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1948, number of the *School Review*, Item 480 (Havighurst) in the September, 1948, number, Item 531 (Wheat) in the October, 1948, number, and Item 558 (Diederich) in the November, 1948, number of the same journal; and Item 266 (Butts) in the June, 1948, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

611. BADGER, HENRY G. "Construction of College Teachers' Salary Schedules," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIV (Summer, 1948), 406-18.

A further analysis of data first reported in the Autumn issue of the *Bulletin*, with especial attention to the provisions of salary schedules found in operation.

612. BADGER, HENRY G., and MAYER, HERBERT C. "Administration of College Teachers' Salaries," *Higher Education*, IV (October 1, 1947), 25-29.

Reports findings of a questionnaire sent out by the Division of Higher Education of the United States Office of Education on January 24, 1947, and answered by 642 institutions. Presents data in tabular form by regions, accreditation, and types of institutions. Supplies information relative to qualifications considered in determining salaries, salary schedules, and time of payment.

613. BAKER, JOSEPH E. "The Victorian Chronology of Our Liberal Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (November, 1947), 407-17, 446.

Treats several of the chief schemes of educational philosophy by dating each theory and telling enough about it to identify "new friends with old faces."

614. BLEGEN, THEODORE C. "The Graduate Schools and the Education of College Teachers," *Educational Record*, XXIX (January, 1948), 12-25.

Describes programs now being advocated or tried in graduate schools to train college teachers who will not be narrow, subject-matter specialists.

615. BOGUE, JESSE P. "The Community College," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIV (Summer, 1948), 285-95.

Traces the growth of the idea of the free junior college as a part of secondary education from 1870 to the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education,

which advocates a national plan for "community" colleges.

616. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "Professional Education," *School and Society*, LXVII (February 28, 1948), 168-74.

Outlines origins and growth of professional education in America and reviews recent books dealing with education for the professions.

617. BRUBACHER, JOHN S. *A History of the Problems of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. xiv+688.

Presents a "longitudinal" approach to the history of education in which each chapter traces the development of some major educational concept, form, or practice of education from antiquity to the present. Contains a chapter on higher education and one on the professional education of teachers.

618. CHAMBERS, M. M. "The Courts and Higher Education in 1947," *Educational Record*, XXIX (April, 1948), 172-84.

Digests twenty court decisions having a bearing on higher education. Includes cases involving discrimination in admission of students, liability under workmen's compensation laws, autonomy of state university trustees, taxation of independent research corporations, and modification of purpose of an endowed gift.

619. CLARK, F. B. "Disciplinary Action against Controlling Agencies of Publicly Supported Educational Institutions," *School and Society*, LXVI (December 6, 1947), 433-37.

Discusses the problem of interference with the internal administration of educational institutions by legislative agencies, describes various types of boards of control according to their legal status, and reviews important court decisions which have a bearing on the problem.

620. *The Community Responsibilities of Institutions of Higher Learning*. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1948,

Vol. XX. Compiled and edited by NORMAN BURNS and CYRIL O. HOULE. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. vi+88.

Deals with the particular responsibilities that each type of institution of higher learning must assume and with the services each can provide. State-controlled institutions, the liberal arts college, the junior college, the teacher-training institution, and the urban university are considered in this light by seven authorities in the field of education. Three papers on adult education are devoted to "Conditions for Effective Adult Learning," "Industry's Concern with Adult Education," and "Labor's Concern with Adult Education," as presented by an educational psychologist, an industrialist, and a union official, respectively.

621. *Co-operation in General Education*. A Final Report of the Executive Committee of the Co-operative Study in General Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xviii+240.

Summarizes the study and describes individual projects in co-operating colleges. Reports conclusions concerning who should receive general education; its objectives, methods, and materials; techniques of appraisal; and types of records required.

622. COWLEY, W. H. "The Government and Administration of Higher Education: Whence and Whither?" *College and University*, XXII (July, 1947), 477-91. Predicts that alumni will exercise greater influence in the future and that the number of persons reporting directly to the president will diminish. Recommends that the business manager be completely subordinated to the president and that research in administration be assigned to experts to furnish busy administrators with necessary information.

623. DAVIDSON, CARTER. "Three Eras in Higher Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (June, 1948), 289-94. Chooses Presidents Eliphalet Nott of

Union College, Charles William Eliot of Harvard, and Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia to epitomize three eras in higher education. Briefly describes the lifework of each and his contributions to his era.

624. DEXTER, LEWIS A. "Examinations as Instruments of, and Obstacles to, General Education," *School Review*, LV (November, 1947), 534-41.

Discusses the sociology of examinations and marking and the effect of examinations and marking on the learning process.

625. DOUGLASS, HARL. R., and ELLIOTT, LLOYD H. "What Will Happen after the Veterans Leave," *School and Society*, LXVI (December 20, 1947), 465-67.

Analyzes trends of the group eighteen through twenty-one years of age and of college enrolments. Concludes that, after veterans have left college, nothing will happen about which the colleges and universities need feel concerned, except planning adequate provisions for increasing enrolments.

626. EMENS, JOHN R.; MAUL, RAY C.; and STINNETT, T. M. "The 1947 Study of Supply of and Demand for Teachers," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (October, 1947), 248-59.

Reports a study of the number of students in colleges and universities in nineteen states who would complete programs of study entitling them to standard teaching certificates. Concludes more effective counseling at college level and early establishment of selective measures are needed.

627. FENTON, WILLIAM NELSON. *Area Studies in American Universities*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. 90.

Presents a report based on the Ethnographic Board Survey of the Foreign Area and Language Curricula of the Army Specialized Training Program and the Civil Affairs Training Program in 1943-44.

628. FITZPATRICK, EDWARD A. "New Trends in Women's Education," *School and*

Society, LXVI (August 23, 1947), 129-31.

Calls attention to the fact that the problems of the education of women as human beings, as individual persons, and in their eternal destinies are the same as those of educating men. However, as women their educational problems are really a phase of the psychology and sociology of individual differences.

629. FLEECE, URBAN H. "Salaries of Administrators in Colleges and Universities during 1947-48," *School and Society*, LXVII (March 13, 1948), 193-96.

Presents data on salaries of administrators in 164 colleges and universities in 1947-48. Information is tabulated according to title of positions, size of institution, and other significant factors.

630. FOWLER, BURTON P. "The Need for Better Co-operation between School and College," *Educational Record*, XXIX, Supplement No. 17 (January, 1948), 130-40.

Advocates co-operative arrangements whereby admission to college will be a more natural step in the process of education and much of the present confusion in college choice by the student and selection of students by the colleges may be avoided.

631. GAUSS, CHRISTIAN. "The Dean of Men," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (October, 1947), 339-44, 391-92.

Maintains that we are living in the most revolutionary period in the history of Western European civilization. On the basis of a lifetime of experience in education, concludes that deans of men, more than any other group of educators, must shape the character and morals of the next generation.

632. GERARD, RALPH W., and KOPPANYI, THEODORE. "Science and the Federal Government: The Case for a National Science Foundation; The Case against a National Science Foundation," *Association of American University Professors*

Bulletin, XXXIV (Summer, 1948), 296-309.

Debates the desirability of the National Science Foundation, with one author envisaging an orderly and beneficial increase in scientific development, the other predicting a development of regimentation that members of the academic profession will live to regret.

633. GOLDTHORPE, J. HAROLD. "British Universities and the Government," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIII (Autumn, 1947), 474-92.

Discusses briefly the recent efforts of the British government to expand university opportunities in the interest of national welfare. Describes the current situation of institutions of higher education in Great Britain which is parallel in many respects to that in the United States.

634. *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vols. I-VI. A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947.

Devotes one volume to each of six different aspects of higher education: (1) *Establishing the Goals*, (2) *Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity*, (3) *Organizing Higher Education*, (4) *Staffing Higher Education*, (5) *Financing Higher Education*, and (6) *Resource Data*.

635. HOLLIS, ERNEST V. "Status of Research Personnel," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (December, 1947), 467-72, 490-91.

Tabulates data concerning 33,184 Ph.D. registrants on the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel according to occupation, field of training, geographical distribution, and age. Finds greater number of registrants are concentrated in Middle Atlantic, East North Central, and South Atlantic states.

636. HOPPOCK, ROBERT. "N.Y.U. Students Grade Their Professors," *School and Society*, LXVI (July 26, 1947), 70-72.

Reports a project in which students rated instructors and courses at New York University for the academic year 1946-47. Results were reported as useful to the administration in hiring teachers in one or two marginal cases and as more reliable than chance comments and complaints on which administrative opinion would otherwise have had to depend.

637. HORN, FRANCIS H. "Problems of Extension Education," *College and University*, XXIII (April, 1948), 433-48.

Examines the problems of extension education, finds that concepts and practices vary widely, and suggests a survey and evaluation of data on which to base recommendations for more uniform procedures.

638. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "The Education We Need," *Ferment in Education*, pp. 27-38. Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1948.

Presents a speech on the need for leadership in American education "to find the way to resolve the paradoxes and contradictions which beset it."

639. HUTCHINS, ROBERT M. "The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education," *Educational Record*, XXIX (April, 1948), 107-22.

Finds the Report of the President's Commission is right about many things but is confused and contradictory. Holds it does not recognize the mission of higher education to carry through the moral, intellectual, and spiritual revolution that is needed by America and the world.

640. JARMAN, B. H. "The Registrar in Institutions Accredited by the Association of American Universities," *College and University*, XXIII (October, 1947), 96-113.

Reports a study based on a questionnaire mailed out in March, 1947, and returned by 174 registrars, describing their duties, education, experience, rank, and salary.

641. JARVIE, LAWRENCE L. "New Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences," *Journal*

of Higher Education, XVIII (December, 1947), 478-82.

Explains how the curriculums, the locations, and the costs of the new institutes in New York State were predetermined.

642. JONES, LEWIS WEBSTER. "The Responsibility of the State University," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (November, 1947), 401-6, 445-46.

Points out that the growth of state universities is based on the increased public interest in human welfare which is stimulated by the new scientific knowledge and by the democratic desire to raise the ordinary pursuits of men to the dignity of the learned professions.

643. JONES, WILLIS KNAPP. "Education South of the Equator," *College and University*, XXIII (October, 1947), 78-85.

Reports on the current conditions in institutions of higher education in Latin America as seen by an American visiting professor.

644. KASTNER, ELWOOD C. "Trends in College Enrolment," *College and University*, XXIII (January, 1948), 181-93.

Conservatively estimates a peak enrolment of 2,375,000 for the fall of 1948; a drop to 1,900,000 by 1952-53; and, beginning in the fall of 1956, a gradual rise to the 1948 level by 1961.

645. KATONA, ARTHUR. "The Campus as a Research Area," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (February, 1948), 93-96.

Lists representative topics dealing with social groups, folkways and mores, class and caste, and attitudes of college students, which, the author believes, are easily available and are suitable for research projects.

646. KLOEPFER, H. W. "How Marking Practice Can Be Improved," *College and University*, XXIII (April, 1948), 427-32.

Describes a method used at the College of Emporia (Emporia, Kansas) which enabled

the teachers to adjust to more uniform marking practices.

647. LOESCHER, FRANK S. "The College Community and Occupational Integration of Minorities," *College and University*, XXIII (October, 1947), 72-77.
Reports experience of the American Friends Service Committee in operating a non-fee service for minorities in Philadelphia, which indicates greater employment opportunities for minority groups than are usually supposed. Suggests ways in which colleges may promote more equal opportunity for minority groups.
648. LYND, ROBERT S. "Who Calls the Tune," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (April, 1948), 163-74, 217.
Commends the first volume of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Establishing the Goals*. Expresses skepticism of our achieving these goals because our liberal democracy lives in unresolved conflict with capitalism. Analyzes the background of the situation and challenges professors in major institutions to carry the fight for liberalism.
649. MARTS, ARMAUD C. "Outlook for Support from Gifts," *Higher Education*, IV (November 15, 1947), 65-68.
Reviews recent trends in gifts to colleges and concludes the present outlook for raising money is excellent.
650. METZ, G. E. "It Will Take Fifty Years To Replace the Credit System," *College and University*, XXIII (April, 1948), 419-26.
Attributes continued use of the credit system to cultural lag, points out the fallacy of time-serving as a measure of educational achievement, and suggests other measures which can now be used to supplement the credit system.
651. MILLIGAN, E. E.; LINS, L. JOSEPH; and LITTLE, KENNETH. "The Success of Non-High-School Graduates in Degree Programs at the University of Wisconsin," *School and Society*, LXVII (January 10, 1948), 27-29.
Reports a study of relationship between first-semester grade-point averages and various measures of ability of sixty-eight non-high-school graduates admitted to the University of Wisconsin between September, 1945, and June, 1947.
652. MINNESOTA STATE-WIDE COMMITTEE ON HIGHER EDUCATION. *Unfinished Business: Minnesota's Needs in Higher Education*. St. Paul, Minnesota: Dean W. Schweikard (State Commissioner of Education) [n.d.]. Pp. 16.
Report of a study of present deficiencies and prospective requirements of facilities, personnel, and financial support for higher education in the state. Urges policy of careful planning of both emergency and long-time programs of improvement.
653. *Negro Higher and Professional Education in the United States*. Journal of Negro Education, Yearbook Number, XVII, Vol. XVII, No. 3. Washington: Published for the Bureau of Educational Research, Howard University, by the Howard University Press, 1948. Pp. 221-436.
Outlines the growth of Negro higher and professional education in the United States. Compares the present opportunities afforded Negro and white populations for higher and professional education, state by state, in the seventeen states which require segregation by law.
654. PERKINS, JOHN A. "Higher Education and the State Government," *School and Society*, LXVI (November 8, 1947), 353-58.
Restates the democratic aims of the state university; points out that, at present, 60 per cent of students in higher education are in state-supported colleges and universities; and discusses the present conditions and needs of state schools. Advocates state rather than federal support.
655. PHILLIPS, WALTER T. "Trends in Foreign-Language Enrolment at San Diego State College," *School and Society*, XLVII (May 29, 1948), 407-8.

Reports a study at San Diego State College (California) which shows a gain in enrolment in foreign languages greater in proportion than the gain in total enrolment since the fall of 1945.

656. PRATOR, RALPH. "Essential Elements in a Sound Plan of Selecting and Counseling College Entrants," *College and University*, XXIII (January, 1948), 268-73.

Reports the opinions of fifty-six admission officers regarding the worth of various features of college-admission programs.

657. PRICE, MAURICE T. "Making Foreign-Area Curriculums Feasible," *Educational Record*, XXVIII (October, 1947), 429-43.

Analyzes the problem of securing proper co-operation and organization of the foreign-area curriculum. Recommends compromise between the departments concerned. Concludes that, if proper departmental co-operation cannot be secured, a separate super departmental organization may be necessary.

658. RECK, W. EMERSON. "The Registrar and Public Relations," *College and University*, XXIII (April, 1948), 396-406.

Calls attention to a number of ways in which the registrar and his staff make impressions on the public. Suggests methods for making these impressions more favorable.

659. ROGERS, DONALD W. "Poverty, Professors, and Policy," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (February, 1948), 60-66, 107-8.

Points out various ill effects of economic poverty on the college teacher and on the profession, sets up a model family budget to show how much an adequate salary should be, and proposes increased tuition rates for private colleges as a means of raising salaries to meet an adequate standard.

660. ROHRER, J. H. "Future Enrolments in Higher Education," *Journal of Higher*

Education, XVIII (October, 1947), 373-76.

Maintains that the constant annual-increment technique for predicting college enrolment has led to predictions that are too high and explains how the "growth" curve equation may be applied to statistical data to derive what the author thinks is a more accurate prediction.

661. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. "Enrolment Trends in Higher Education," *College and University*, XXII (July, 1947), 413-31.

Appraises the facts and figures which will influence future enrolment trends. Predicts a peak, due to veteran enrolment, of about three million by 1950 or 1951, followed by a plateau until 1956 or 1957, when enrolment should again rise.

662. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. "The Role of the Division of Higher Education of the United States Office of Education," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIII (Autumn, 1947), 432-42.

Characterizes the services of the United States Office of Education as primarily fact-finding, research, and dissemination of information about educational operations. Describes briefly the organization of the Office and, in detail, the organization, personnel, and services of the Division of Higher Education.

663. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE. "Critical Issues in Higher Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (October, 1947), 149-61.

Predicts increase in occupational curriculums at lower-divisional levels. Advocates abandonment of selection on an economic basis as unsound, increasing the numbers of institutions to serve students living at home, further development of in-service and graduate professional training for college teachers, and governmental financial aid.

664. SHAPLEY, HARLOW. "Must We Climb Steeples?" *Journal of Higher Education*, XVIII (December, 1947), 447-59.

Compares specialization in higher education to climbing steeples from which the specialist, if he is to communicate with others, must descend to the level of baseball, crops, and politics. As a remedy, Shapley outlines courses to provide general education on much higher levels.

665. SIBLEY, ELBRIDGE. "Scholastic Ranks of College Students in Relation to Their Fields of Specialization in College and Afterwards," *College and University*, XXIII (January, 1948), 194-200.

Presents data in tabular form showing relationship between scholastic standing and departmental majors of 1,999 students from eight colleges and universities.

666. SPARLING, EDWARD J. "Toward Democracy in College," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXIX (May, 1948), 371-76.

Finds that student problems, in general, at Roosevelt College (Chicago), which has no minority group quotas, are normal in scope and intensity. Describes how the specific minority-group problems—discrimination, undemocratic administrative control, inequality of achievement, and restricted opportunity for job placement—are handled.

667. THOMPSON, RONALD B., and PRESSEY, S. L. "An Analysis of the Academic Records of 2,144 Veterans," *College and University*, XXIII (January, 1948), 242-52.

Compares success of veteran groups with each other and with nonveterans, according to age, marital status, and other characteristics. Finds, on the whole, that veterans performed better than nonveterans and that married veterans with children performed best of all.

668. THURSTONE, L. L. "The Improvement of Examinations," *American Association of University Professors Bulletin*, XXXIV (Summer, 1948), 394-97.

Proposes a set of examination manuals, prepared through co-operative effort and

containing thousands of carefully worked-out questions and problems, from which test items appropriate to a course can be chosen by the teacher with much less effort than he now prepares his own.

669. TUCKER, WILLIAM P. "Political Science Offerings in Liberal Arts Colleges," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, XXXIII (October, 1947), 541-46.

Presents tabulated data showing offerings in political science of one hundred coeducational, liberal arts colleges as reported in their catalogues.

670. VAUGHN, K. W. "The Graduate Record Examinations," *College and University*, XXIII (October, 1947), 39-49.

Describes the purpose and services of the Graduate Record Examination Project from its beginning to the present.

671. VISHER, STEPHEN SARGENT. "Education of Leading Scientists," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (May, 1948), 233-38.

Summarizes and interprets replies of 906 "starred" scientists to a questionnaire sent out in November, 1946. Gives distribution of scientists by geographical regions, colleges in which they received training, and other significant information.

672. WALTERS, RAYMOND. "Statistics of Attendance in American Universities and Colleges, 1947," *School and Society*, LXVI (December 27, 1947), 488-98.

Presents detailed data and interprets trends of enrolment at 716 approved universities and four-year colleges for 1947.

673. WOODY, CLIFFORD. "Language Requirements for the Doctor's Degree," *Journal of Higher Education*, XIX (February, 1948), 75-86, 107.

Reports an investigation of the opinions of 228 faculty members of the Graduate School at the University of Michigan concerning the language requirements. Suggests a need for greater flexibility.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

DOROTHY SPARKS, *Strong Is the Current: History of the Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1900-1947*. Chicago: Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1948. Pp. xiv+284. \$1.50.

At a time when organized parent groups are giving greater support to education and carrying on more effective programs in behalf of children than ever before in the history of American public education, the story of a half-century of growth and activities of one of the largest of these organizations comes as a timely and significant contribution. *Strong Is the Current* recounts the development of the Illinois Congress of Parents and Teachers from its modest beginnings in 1900, as a branch of the National Congress of Mothers, to its impressive stature in 1947, by which time it could boast of more than a quarter-million members and an organization involving nearly sixteen hundred local parent-teacher associations. The well-known novelist, Dorothy Sparks, was selected to record this story. Her skilful treatment of the historical materials available to her has resulted in a volume which is a major contribution to the field of home-school-community co-operation.

The organization of the National Congress of Mothers (now the National Congress of Parents and Teachers) in 1897 and the origination of the Illinois branch in 1900 are briefly reviewed in an introductory section, which includes, as well, a short historical summary of the national social and economic scene at the turn of the century. In the eight succeeding chapters of the book, Miss Sparks outlines the growth of the state organization in chronological segments cov-

ering from two to ten years each. The first of these chapters covers the struggling early years, 1900-1910. The next period, up to 1918, is shown, in the second chapter, to have been a period of great and varied activity in which the Congress expanded, through trial and error and through an increasing understanding of its unique potentialities, into an organization rendering many valuable services to Illinois communities. The succeeding five chapters deal with the years 1918-45, and in the eighth chapter a review of the period 1945-47 brings the chronological treatment to a point from which the reader can visualize both the historical development and the present vigor and scope of the organization. Each of the eight chapters is preceded, as is the introductory section, by a two-page sketch of the national scene during the period covered by the particular chapter.

Although the organization of material is basically chronological, the author deviates from the time sequence in each chapter to present the complete history of those committees of the Illinois Congress which were most prominent during that period. This useful technique enables the reader to trace, from its inception to its ultimate development, each of the many branch activities of the Congress without loss of continuity or perspective. In every chapter, therefore, there is an economy of presentation which focuses attention on the major developments of the period. This procedure, coupled with the historical sketches which lend an original flavor to the material, makes extremely interesting reading out of a rather imposing array of detailed historical data. This fact

is particularly noteworthy inasmuch as the volume will doubtless be read primarily by laymen.

Following the final chapter there is a brief section, "Looking to the Future," by Mrs. Frank A. Damm, president of the Illinois Congress in 1945-48. In the Appendix are found a roster of the 1947-48 leaders, a map of the Illinois districts, and lists of members with five or more years of service and records of service on the National Congress Board of Managers. The Index is arranged in two parts, the first being a general index and the second, an index of references to committees. The only illustrations are pictures of some of the presidents of the Illinois Congress, a graph showing growth in membership between 1915 and 1947, and a map depicting the boundaries of the organization's districts in Illinois.

One cannot leave this volume without an increased respect for the parent-teacher movement in Illinois and an admiration for the enthusiasm, intelligence, and steadfast purpose of the thousands of lay leaders who have worked in its behalf. This book is a record of service to schools, communities, and children of which the present-day membership can be justly proud. It is also a testimony of struggle, of hard work, of occasional mistakes and failures, of individual sacrifice and accomplishment, and of staunch devotion to ideals. While it will probably be read most widely among parent and community leaders, teachers and administrators will certainly be interested in its contents and will derive satisfaction from the expectation that it will do much to dignify and enhance the popular opinion of the parent-teacher movement.

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ERNST TOCH, *The Shaping Forces in Music: An Inquiry into Harmony, Melody, Counterpoint, Form*. New York: Criterion Music Corp., 1948. Pp. iv+246. \$5.00.

Books on music, particularly books on music appreciation, have kept pace with the growth of interest in music since the advent of the phonograph and the radio. The field of music appreciation has been cultivated by many persons endowed more with the "gift of gab" than with any special musical insight or even with adequate knowledge of the literature and of the technical processes of the art they profess to explain. As a result, books by this type of author have not always succeeded in making clear the meaning of music or the ways in which music behaves, either when separated into its elements—melody, harmony, form, etc.—or when presented as a totality in some universally acknowledged masterpiece. Until a comparatively recent date, the individuals best qualified to do these things—the composers of unquestionable standing—were usually preoccupied in creating their own works rather than in discussing them or the works of other composers.

In 1939 a noted American composer, Aaron Copland, wrote a book¹ explaining the fundamentals of music and furnishing the reader with some techniques for the hearing and understanding of great music. Another composer, Paul Hindemith, made a notable contribution to musical theory (a part of appreciation taken in a wider sense) in a work² published first in Germany in 1939, later translated and published in this country in 1941. Still another composer, Ernst Toch, perhaps not so well known in the United States as the two mentioned, has, in a recent book, *The Shaping Forces in Music*, thrown additional light on what is for many of us a baffling and impenetrable tissue of inconsistencies—the rules of musical theory and their relation and application to musical

¹ Aaron Copland, *What To Listen for in Music*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

² Paul Hindemith, *The Craft of Musical Composition*, Books I and II. English translation by Otto Ortmann. New York: Associated Music Publishers, Inc., 1941.

composition. The book is intended, in the author's own words:

... for those who may have gone through a certain amount of elementary music theory. . . . for music lovers who desire to attain a better understanding—"appreciation"—of music at large; for practical musicians and amateurs who are aware of the incompleteness of their musical upbringing when confronted with a more progressive type of music; and finally for all those interested in trying their hand at musical composition [p. ii].

Four sections make up the bulk of the author's discussion: "Harmony," three chapters; "Melody" (including "Rhythm"), four chapters; "Counterpoint," two chapters; and "Form," four chapters. The material of each section is richly illustrated, to a degree unprecedented in this type of book, with quotations from music literature.

Though recognizing the four subdivisions of musical theory for purposes of analysis, Toch regards them as valid only if their disciplines are closely interrelated and if their influence and their interdependence on one another are constantly kept in mind. Throughout, he leans heavily on the analogical method to show that "in art, as in nature, forces are at work which hardly ever—probably never—manifest themselves in pure, unbroken appearance; although the knowledge of their pure, unbroken appearance is necessary to understand better their concurrence and conflict" (p. iii).

A contemporary composer, with all that term implies in the use of contemporary musical idioms, Toch by no means disparages traditional procedures in musical art. Indeed he throws new light on traditional music, clarifies its procedures, and discovers in many of the accepted masterpieces meanings and significances hitherto undisclosed. In the section on "Harmony," he attacks the dogmatic and narrow teaching of the theory of harmony which is prevalent in many of the textbooks on the subject. He draws clear distinctions between harmony and chord, consonance and dissonance, that are ignored

or obscured in these textbooks, and he draws attention to recent efforts to subdivide the half step—a subdivision, he points out, which is implicit in the performance of traditional works of music that give no written indication of intervals smaller than the half step.

The section on "Melody" includes discussions of so many features of melodic development which are usually neglected that it would be fruitless to describe or even to enumerate them within the confines of this review. For the interested reader, this section contains information on the characteristics of melody which is not easily found in other sources.

"Counterpoint" seems, to this reviewer, to be the section least comprehensively treated, though the discussion on "ornamental" and "fermentative" counterpoint is both interesting and provocative. On the other hand, the section on "Form" brings forward more detailed analyses of certain masterpieces (the first movement of the *Second Symphony* by Brahms, for instance) than may be found in the other sections. An important distinction is made between existing and easily recognized musical forms and the form which emerges from the content of a musical work hitherto suspected of being "formless."

A word should be said about the fine organization of the details of each section and the clarity of the literary style. Here and there some usages betray the foreign antecedents of the author. On page 143 the word "spiritualism" conveys a meaning which would be better expressed by the word "spirituality." Two common words appear in a hyphenated form for no ostensible reason: "pro-fessor," on page 141 and "com-poser," on page 173. There is the familiar misuse of "principle" where "principal" is intended, in the last line of page 240. These, however, are minor blemishes in a book which is an important contribution to the understanding and appreciation of the musical processes found in living music of the past and

present. It is recommended for teacher, student, and musical amateur.

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LUELLA B. COOK, WALTER LOBAN, TREMAINE McDOWELL, and RUTH M. STAUFFER, *Living Literature: People in Literature*, pp. xvi+682, \$2.92; *America through Literature*, pp. xiv+750, \$3.00. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1948.

Do our courses in literature give sufficient consideration to the characteristics of youth and their reactions to the material they read? If not, how far, in our attempts to interest them, should we get away from the usual standard setups of literary techniques, numerous dates, and other factual data that are often considered necessary for their complete emancipation?

The authors of the two books, *People in Literature* and *America through Literature*, which make up half of a series of anthologies for the four high-school years, appear to be concerned with the solution of these problems. They believe, it would seem, that retaining the interest of youth should be the ultimate purpose for including any type of material in a textbook; that not only the material itself, but its arrangement, together with impressive pictures, should also contribute to this end; and that, in order not to detract from the main impression which is sought, a minimum of techniques, dates, and other factual data should be included. Judging from the method of organizing the material for the two books being reviewed here, each of which begins with foundational material and ends with selections calculated to cause future reflection, one would conclude that this purpose—continued interest—was uppermost in the minds of the authors.

The titles of the eight units included in *People in Literature* are "Youth," "Family and Fireside," "People Overseas," "Roads

to Success," "Lost Worlds," "March of Freedom," "Growth of the Mind," and "Challenge to the Future." *America through Literature* is divided into three parts, comprising eleven units. "The American Achievement" considers the development of America as a whole, the progress on farms, and the progress in cities. "The American Quest" is divided into the search for freedom, the search for democracy, and the search for the good life. "The Molding of America" includes selections on our divine heritage, patterns of living, love of laughter, responses to life, and, finally, the common faith. One gathers from the titles that each unit leads naturally to the next and that the selections under each unit contribute to this continuity.

Various devices help maintain the reader's interest. For example, preceding each unit of *People in Literature* is a page or more of material giving an overview of the selections which appear under the unit. In *America through Literature* this overview is given in two or three sentences preceding each of the units that are listed in the Table of Contents. Other methods of arousing interest are the inclusion of a paragraph or two about the selection and its author, at the beginning of each selection; questions which appear at the end of each selection and which are particularly applicable in view of the compilers' indicated purposes; questions, at the end of each unit, which are intended to summarize the reader's thinking; and suggestions regarding a number of books for additional reading.

Little attention is paid to literary technique in a formal sense. In the anthology for Grade X, *People in Literature*, a few pages are devoted to each type of literature. However, these discussions are not so involved as to detract from reading as a human experience. *America through Literature* does not contain works of all the usual authors or the common selections found in the ordinary textbooks on American literature. Rather, the selections are included for the purpose that is indicated by the title.

Those persons who seek in these tenth- and eleventh-grade books the arrangement, materials, and comment of a standardized type will meet with disappointment. However, those persons who are looking for books of attractive typographical arrangement and

for material which will contribute to predetermined ends will want to examine these two volumes carefully.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

The Administration of Schools for Better Living. Compiled and edited by DAN H. COOPER. Proceedings of the Co-operative Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. XI. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. vi+170. \$3.50.

"*Arithmetic 1948.*" Compiled and edited by G. T. BUSWELL. Papers Presented at the Third Annual Conference on Arithmetic Held at the University of Chicago, July 7, 8, and 9, 1948. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 66. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. vi+90. \$2.50.

Basic Instruction in Reading in Elementary and High Schools. Compiled and edited by WILLIAM S. GRAY. Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, 1948, Vol. X. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 65. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. viii+238. \$2.50.

Claremont College Reading Conference: Thirteenth Yearbook 1948. Sponsored by the Claremont Graduate School and Alpha Iota Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta. Claremont, California: Claremont College Curriculum Laboratory, 1948. Pp. 158. \$2.50.

The Community Responsibilities of Institutions of Higher Learning. Compiled and edited by NORMAN BURNS and CYRIL O. HOULE. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institu-

tions, Vol. XX. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. vi+140. \$3.00.
COX, PHILIP W. L.; DUFF, JOHN CARR; and MCNAMARA, MARIE. *Basic Principles of Guidance.* New York 13: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948. Pp. xii+240. \$3.75.

DEJEAN, LOUIS. *Junior Citizen.* New York 16: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1948. Pp. xx+204. \$3.00.

DIRKSEN, CLETUS. *Economic Factors of Delinquency.* Milwaukee 1, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 94. \$2.00.

JOHNSON, B. LAMAR, and LINDSTROM, ELOISE (editors), and OTHERS. *The Librarian and the Teacher in General Education: A Report of Library-Instructional Activities at Stephens College.* Chicago 11: American Library Association, 1948. Pp. xii+70. \$2.00.

NEWKIRK, LOUIS V., and JOHNSON, WILLIAM H. *The Industrial Arts Program.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp. x+358. \$5.50.

PETERSON, HARVEY A.; MARZOLF, STANLEY S.; and BAYLEY, NANCY. *Educational Psychology.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1948. Pp. xiv+550. \$4.00.

WHITMAN, HOWARD. *Let's Tell the Truth about Sex.* New York 3: Pellegrini & Cudahy, Inc., 1948. Pp. xiv+242. \$2.50.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

AMERICAN FOOTBALL COACHES' ASSOCIATION. *New 1948 Plays: Football.* Leonia, New Jersey: Wells Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. 128. \$0.75.

- BOWMAN, NELLE E., and LARSON, ESTHER. *Workbook To Accompany "America: Its History and People" by Faulkner and Kepner*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1948. Pp. vi+214.
- BURNETT, R. WILL; JAFFE, BERNARD; and ZIM, HERBERT S. *New World of Science*. New York 3: Silver Burdett Co., 1948. Pp. viii+504. \$2.80.
- FAULKNER, HAROLD U.; KEPNER, TYLER; and PITKIN, VICTOR E. *U.S.A. An American History for the Upper Grades*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1948 (revised). Pp. x+630.
- MERSAND, JOSEPH. *The Play's the Thing*. New York 8: Modern Chapbooks, 1941, 1948. Pp. 102. \$2.50.
- MILES, DUDLEY, and POOLEY, ROBERT C. *Literature and Life in America*, pp. xviii+728, \$2.80; *Literature and Life in England*, pp. xviii+824, \$3.00. Life-Reading Service. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1948.
- ROGERS, WILLIAM W., and BARNES, ROBERT H. *Mechanical Drawing at Work. A Text To Assist Students To Develop Drafting Skills and Acquire Trade Information*. New York 3: Silver Burdett Co., 1948. Pp. vi+186. \$2.48.
- Sportsmanlike Driving*, pp. 474; *Teacher's Manual for "Sportsmanlike Driving"*, pp. vi+174. Washington 6: American Automobile Association, 1948 (second edition).
- WHITING, HELEN A. *Up! Up! The Ladder!* Atlanta, Georgia: Helen A. Whiting (61 Newcastle Street, S.W.), 1948. Pp. 32. \$0.75.
- PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM
- BOWERS, HENRY. *Aptitude Test for Elementary School Teachers-in-Training: Parts I-VII; Manual*, pp. viii+48. Toronto 5, Canada: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd.
- CLARKE, JAMES MITCHELL. *The Cuyamaca Story*. A record in pictures of San Diego's City-County School Camps, prepared for the San Diego City-County Camp Commission under direction of the School Camp Steering Committee, 1948, through the generosity of the Rosenberg Foundation of San Francisco. San Diego, California: San Diego City-County Camp Commission, 1948. Pp. 32. \$0.30.
- "Community Survey of West Fork, Arkansas." Prepared by the Citizens of West Fork with the assistance of the University of Arkansas in the interest of improved School and Community life. Fayetteville, Arkansas: General Extension Service, University of Arkansas, 1948. Pp. 48 (mimeographed). \$0.25.
- Films for Classroom Use: Handbook of Information on Films Selected and Classified by the Advisory Committee on the Use of Motion Pictures in Education*. New York: Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 1948. Pp. 112.
- Folk Music of the United States and Latin America*. Combined Catalog of Phonograph Records. Washington 25: Division of Music, Library of Congress, 1948. Pp. 52. \$0.10.
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